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ABSTRACT

This reference handbook is intended to assist individuals responsible for developing and implementing cooperative occupational education and work experience programs at the secondary, postsecondary, and adult levels. The following topics are covered: the strategy of aims and goal inputs (the scope of instructional programs using the work environment, development of human resources, public policy goals and institutional roles); the structure of curriculum patterns and the use of the work environment at various levels (cooperative education models; coordinators and their roles; initiation of a plan; and coordinator responsibilities at the secondary, adult, and postsecondary levels); the system of instruction and coordination (planning and carrying out effective in-school instruction, developing training stations as instructional laboratories, correlating instruction between school and job laboratories, maturation of cooperative plans, student organizations as integral parts of instruction, accountability through evaluation, and legal aspects of cooperative education); and application of the systems approach (plans in agricultural, business, health, home economics, marketing, and trade and industrial occupations). (A 20-page bibliography and a glossary are appended.) (MN)

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COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

and Work Experience in the Curriculum

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COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

and Work Experience in the Curriculum

Fourth Edition

COOPERATIVE
OCCUPATIONAL
EDUCATION

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COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
and Work Experience in the Curriculum

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in memory of

Peter G. Haines

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• • •

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• • •

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His degrees are B.S., M.Ed., and Ph.D. from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, the University of Georgia, and Michigan State University, respectively.

PREFACE

The first edition of ***Cooperative Occupational Education*** was published at a pivotal point in the history of cooperative and work experience education. Prior to that time (1965), the cooperative plan of instruction had been extensively used in some states, but not in all, and in some fields, notably marketing education and industrial education. Although the cooperative plan was being used at the post-secondary level, it was not in widespread evidence.

Soon after the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, many districts began to introduce the cooperative plan, especially in business occupations, home economics occupations, health occupations, and agricultural occupations. Thus, the first edition met a felt need—it was adopted for many pre-service collegiate courses and many in-service workshops and conferences.

The second edition was reorganized to serve all vocational areas using the cooperative plan. Like the first edition, it was widely used as a reference handbook by curriculum directors, local administrators and consultants for vocational education, and graduate students.

The third edition continued to have the practical directness of a handbook. Emphasis remained on the everyday details of organizing and operating the cooperative plan. Much more theoretical substance was added to work-study and general work experience plans, and much more detail was given to the concepts behind the career development of the individual. The conceptual base behind educational decision-making was re-emphasized, with the topics presented in a logical sequence of educational planning—***strategy-structure-system***.

The modified edition of 1986 incorporated the legislative changes in vocational education stemming from the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 and the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) of 1982.

The fourth edition retains the logical sequence of educational planning (strategy-structure-system), and it continues to stress the impact of current vocational legislation. The legal aspects of cooperative education are discussed in considerable detail. The application of the plan at the post-secondary, collegiate, adult levels and to agricultural occupations, home economics occupations, and health occupations has been expanded. The fourth edition contains another new feature — a new author, Stewart W. Husted.

Ralph E. Mason
Lorraine T. Furtado
Stewart W. Husted

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

If we could acknowledge everyone who helped with the preparation of this edition, we would. Even though we cannot—we wish to thank the following:

- Dr. Peter G. Haines, now deceased, who co-authored the first three editions and to whom this new edition is dedicated.
- The many students, administrators, teacher-coordinators, and teacher-educators who have given suggestions for this edition and previous editions.
- Dr. Joanna Smith, Chief Consultant of Home Economics Education, Indiana Department of Education, who reviewed Chapter 20, "The Plan in Home Economics Occupations"; Joanne N. Bendall, Coordinator of Vocational and Technical Education, South Bend Community School Corporation, who reviewed Chapter 19, "The Plan in Health Occupations"; Dr. Edward W. Osborne, Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Division of Agricultural Education, University of Illinois, who reviewed Chapter 17, "The Plan in Agricultural Occupations"; and Harold C. Boone, Associate Professor, Industrial Technology Education, School of Technology, Indiana State University, who reviewed Chapter 22, "The Plan in Trade and Industrial Occupations."
- Barbara Taylor, Director of Cooperative Education Programs, The American University, who contributed material for Chapter 9, "Coordinator Responsibilities at the Post-secondary and Collegiate Levels."
- The many people and organizations who contributed illustrations. We have identified them by courtesy lines where appropriate.
- Angie Brown and Debbie Shake, secretaries at Indiana State University, who keyboarded some of the manuscript.

To everyone, we say, "Thank you."

Ralph E. Mason
Lorraine T. Furtado
Stewart W. Husted

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OVERVIEW: A MODEL FOR PROGRAM PLANNING

Cooperative Occupational Education uses the ***strategy-structure-system*** model as a means of implementing an instructional plan that effectively brings about what is best for students. The use of the work environment is a plan of education—it is a means to an educational end. In no way can the plan be considered a subject to be taught, nor can it be conceived of as an extracurricular area.

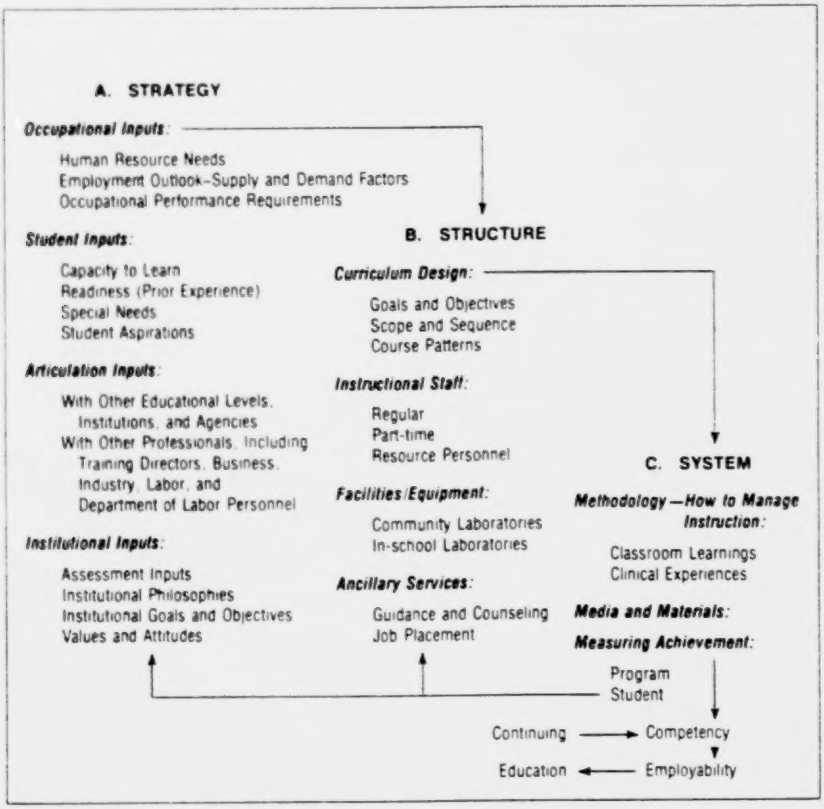
Everything that is done and every choice that is made involve a goal and the resultant determination of the process and means of goal attainment. Thus, one's time, energy, and inputs of other resources must be directed toward attaining the values sought, even if the end in sight is not completely understood or delineated.

Without goals, any activity is at best aimless—or worse, misdirected. So it is also with the educational enterprise and its decision-making process, Goals must be established, and the outcomes sought must be identified and described. When these have been accomplished, the enterprise has a *strategy*, and the operational decisions about curriculum and instruction follow from that strategy. Thus, the appropriate learning experiences can be devised and put to work in the implementation of that strategy.

In Figure 1, the model for decision-making about the use of the work environment in the educational plan consists of three major parts: the ***strategy,*** the ***structure,*** and the ***system.*** Each depends on the others, because within each is a series of decisions that relate to and feed back to the others. Goals form the strategy of the educational endeavor; the length and timing of the learning experiences of the curriculum become the structure of the endeavor; the utilization of human resources (teacher), media, and materials follows in the instructional system.

The Strategy

The strategy emerges from consideration of a series of inputs representing the needs, expressed or implied, of the groups to whom the educational plan will relate. As Figure 1 shows, these inputs are first related to the human resource needs of the community. For instance, what is the school being asked to do in providing a trained labor force, which affects greatly the economic well-being of the community? The goal is one of service to society through helping individuals reach their economic potential. But the human resource element as an input has another dimension that relates to program planning—that is, the recognition of the performance levels expected of the school's product when it enters the labor market. The demands are general as they relate to over-all employee characteristics, but they are specific in the skills and knowledges required for performance within a particular job title. Student occupational aspirations must also be perceived, since a program that meets community goals is of little value if the students are not interested. Student aspirations should be viewed not only in their short-range dimensions of getting the first job for whatever reason but also in their longer range of routes for advancement and promotion, or even shifts to other and more rewarding occupations.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Measuring Achievement:
Program
Student
Continuing
Competency
Education
Employability

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

FIG. 1

A second category of strategy input rests with the student. In addition to the student's learning style, the capacity to learn—including affinity for cognitive learning, for example—must be considered. The approach or strategy to program building must take into account the student's prior experiences. How much does the student know about the occupation? Has the student acquired skills and knowledges in prior occupational classes, or is the student starting from scratch? Has the student the necessary basic skills of reading, communications, computation, and human relations to profit from the occupation's program immediately, or will the program call for remediation time? The strategy must also examine whether the student has special needs arising from physical or socio-economic handicaps, which not only cause learning difficulties but also present problems in the employability demanded of the student who is to work part time under the direction of the school.

The last part of the strategy decision calls for determination of what other educational institutions are doing or can do for the student in terms of training programs of community agencies, other state and federal agencies, and local associations, such as labor unions.

The Structure

The structure that emerges from the plan using the work environment consists of what is popularly known as the curriculum, as well as the supporting staff, physical facilities and equipment, and ancillary or supporting services such as counseling and placement. For program-planning purposes, the structure should be viewed first as a definition of the behavioral goals to be accomplished, along with those performance goals that are intermediate steps to the facilitation of the end behaviors.

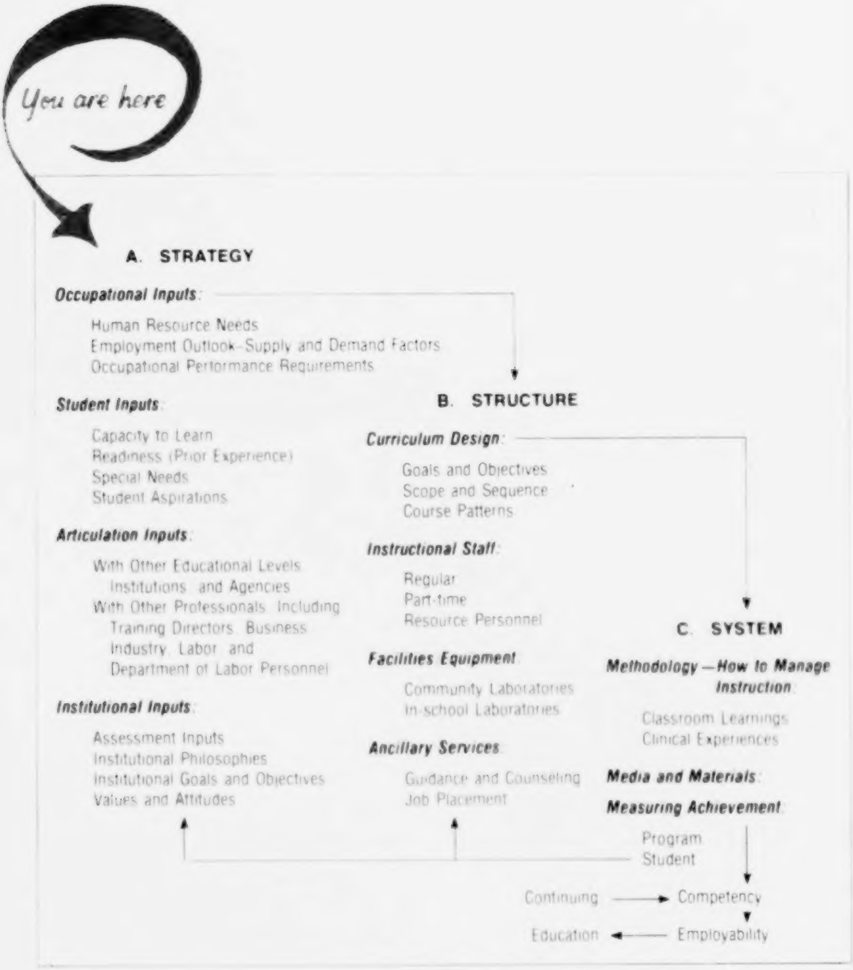
Both the behavioral goals and the performance goals can be measured against the probable student input of readiness and the needed learning experiences seen in broad outline. The learning experiences can then be plotted into a scope-and-sequence chart from which will emerge the final decision regarding the time needed for instruction and the division into whatever courses, modules, or other appropriate units fit the institution's pattern.

The System

The final determination in the decision-making process should appear early in broad outline when the instructional system can be seen in broad perspective. For example, it may be concluded early that because of student inputs and occupational skills demanded, the system will rely heavily upon audio-visual–tutorial instruction or upon laboratory simulations. The system in detail emerges when the basic decisions of strategy and structure have been made and when the program is finally about to get underway. The system decisions involve determination of methodology appropriate to each learning experience and to each student's learning capacity and learning style. Questions are answered about what media and materials should be employed, what clinical experiences should be obtained on the job, and how achievement will be measured. The system can readily be seen as a series of daily decisions that depend upon feedback from events as they happen. The system is dynamic and flexible as instruction proceeds.

SECTION ONE

The Strategy of Aims and Goal Inputs


You are here
A. STRATEGY
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Employment Outlook–Supply and Demand Factors
Occupational Performance Requirements
Student Inputs:
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Continuing
Competency
Education
Employability

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION ONE

Universal opportunity for human self-realization through public education remains the ultimate goal of society in the United States. There is little doubt that real opportunity exists only when educational programming is sufficiently flexible to provide these learning experiences needed at a time and place in which the individual can profit from them. The provision of such experiences, particularly those related to the world of work, must be available to all young people if they are to become fully participating and contributing members of society.

The United States is truly a dynamic and ever-changing society, characterized by technological innovation and economic growth, compounded by rapid sociological changes. All these changes are bound up in the world of work and in the crucial nature of the job as the central feature of the daily life of adults. Consequently, educators need to provide students with a continuing set of occupational and career development opportunities that will ready them for the world of work. Each individual must be helped to adjust to the occupational situation, to contribute to rising national productivity, and to obtain the style of living desired.

Section One begins with the first step in educational decision-making—determining the strategy, which is made up of the goals of those who are involved in the educational enterprise of occupational and career development education—the students, their families, the employers, and the educational institutions. From this amalgam comes the strategy of using the work environment as an instructional plan.

1

The Scope of Instructional Programs Using the Work Environment

Working or observing on the job is a form of experiential education.

KEY CONCEPT: *Although many programs use the work environment, only the cooperative occupational education plan has a vocational objective — the development of occupational competence.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Distinguish between general work experience and cooperative occupational education.
- Explain what the term "experiential learning" means.
- Identify and describe the basic types of plans that use the world of work as an educational experience.
- Distinguish between work-study and internship plans.
- Identify and explain the chief components/characteristics of cooperative education.

KEY TERMS

cooperative occupational education plans

correlated instruction

experiential learning

exploratory work experience plans

general work experience plans

internships or practicums

related class

work observation plans

work-study plans

Schools and colleges have used the work environment as an educational experience for many, many years. Professional literature in education for decades has contained a great many articles dealing with such programs. Schools use the work environment for many reasons and in many different ways. These range from career exploration to general education adjustment for the adult world of work and from job-entry training to career development education. The uses are many and varied, and the terminology of the various programs is very diverse.

Colleges and universities use experience in a work environment as an integral part of many professional curricula. Usually, these experiences occur after or near the completion of regular course work and are called "**internships**" or "**practicums**." The main purposes are to allow the student to view acquired theory in actual practice and to give the neophyte the opportunity to practice prior to professional employment. For example, the future teacher interns as a student teacher, the criminal justice student interns as a police officer, the accountant engages in a practicum with a CPA firm, or the student dietician works in a nursing home.

Post–high school vocational–technical schools and community–junior colleges use the work environment in their career specialist curricula. Students in curricula such as engineering technology, health care, office administration, and marketing are placed in cooperating firms, where they learn certain job skills and how to use highly specialized equipment. They also have the opportunity to apply classroom theory to practical problems.

Secondary schools use the work environment for learning activities extensively. In recent years as more and more schools have become involved in expanding "schooling" into the work environment, the term "experiential education" has developed in popularity. Whatever the term used to describe learning situations that involve world-of-work experiences, the scope of the programs available for secondary students is far-reaching. Students may be placed as workers (or observers) to aid them in exploring occupations as they seek to make their career choice. In other cases, junior and senior high students who may be having difficulties in achieving academically are released from school part time in order to take jobs that perhaps will provide them with not only earnings but also motivation to continue their general education. To acquire general education work experience, students may be employed in schools as cafeteria helpers, office workers, and library assistants. Some districts have created work-study plans for youth with academic and/or socio-economic handicaps.

What Is Experiential Learning?

Recently the concept of **experiential learning** has become important in elementary and secondary schools. The term is often used generically to describe programs that use the work environment as an integral part of the curriculum. At times experiential learning includes cooperative vocational education, experience-based career education (general work experience programs in the academic curricula), JTPA (Job Training Partnership Act) tryout employment, and cooperative education plans. Many projects have been funded by state and federal agencies, including the U.S. Department of Education, the National Institute of Education (NIE), and the Department of Labor, to study how the educational environment can be expanded beyond schooling—expanded into the work environment. Experiential learning includes those experiences that teach individuals about work by studying about it, observing it, and doing it.

A project completed at the National Center for Research in Vocational Education defined "experiential education" as ". . . a set of planned educational experiences designed to enable learners to acquire attitudes, skills, and knowledge for work and other life roles by participating in work settings."[1]

The Purposes of Using the Work Environment to Learn

The range of purposes of using work as a learning experience in education is extensive. So also is the range of operational patterns of such programs. Sometimes the work experience is of short duration—an hour or so a day for two weeks; but, at other times, it is much longer—half days for a year or two or full time for a semester or two. Sometimes the experience is obtained during normal school hours; at other times it is undertaken after school or in the summers, although in both cases it is considered part of the school curriculum. Sometimes students are paid for the work, sometimes they are not. In some cases, the school selects only jobs that provide the desired learning experiences, closely supervises the experiences, and provides instruction in school that relates directly to the jobs. In other cases, the experience is loosely supervised, sometimes amounting to only keeping a record of where the students work.

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[1] *Experiential Education Policy Guidelines*. Research and Development Series No. 160. Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1979, p. v.

In general, the work environment is used by educational institutions to accomplish one or more of six major purposes or goals. They are:

1. To keep over-age students (or under-achievers and/or potential drop-outs) in school part time while they obtain needed general education.
2. To help students explore the world of work and to assist them in making an occupational choice.
3. To help students overcome personality and behavioral problems.
4. To help students earn money who otherwise would need to drop out of school.
5. To provide practice in what has been learned in the classroom and to assist in the transition from school to job.
6. To help students develop general and specific occupational skills, knowledges, and attitudes, particularly those not readily available in the school's laboratories.

CONSIDERING A RANGE OF GOALS

Another way of viewing the possible outcomes of using the work environment is to review a career development scheme. The following scheme is intended to represent the needs of individuals at various stages of their career development. The school should decide at what stage each student is and whether a work-situation–based program will be of assistance.

1. ***Career orientation.***—Helping students understand themselves and giving them an awareness of their interests and aptitudes and an appreciation for the demands of various occupations.
2. ***Work exploration.***—Providing an opportunity for students to explore clusters of occupations and to gain experiences related to one or more occupational areas to facilitate more intelligent career selection.
3. ***Economic awareness.***—Helping students to understand the economy and their place in it as workers and consumers.
4. ***Work adjustment and/or personal life adjustment.***—Providing an opportunity for students to adjust to a work situation and to resolve problems, especially those in self-realization and human relationships.
5. ***Skill development.***—Preparing students in those skills needed in their occupational choice to provide entry-level competence.
6. ***Skill application.***—Easing the transition from institutional training to full-time employment by providing an opportunity for students to apply and test their acquired skills under real conditions.
7. ***Upgrading skills.***—Providing additional training so that students can

upgrade their skills in order to prepare themselves for increased responsibility and/or advancement.

8. ***Job placement.***—Helping students to find and hold jobs through a school-directed initial placement and try-out, with special reference given to helping students who are physically and/or mentally handicapped and those who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged to adjust.

"FORM FOLLOWS FUNCTION"

Typically, educational decision-making needs to begin with a delineation of goals (strategy), which in turn dictates the curriculum structure as well as the instructional system that is needed. But, before discussing the goals (strategy) of the work environment as an educational device, the decision-maker must perceive how the work environment is used in educational institutions to achieve many diverse results.

Contemporary architecture has popularized the "form-follows-function" concept. Oversimplified, this means that a building is designed according to the purposes it will serve. This principle has great merit for curriculum builders who wish to use a work situation as an instructional laboratory. Paraphrasing, you could say, "The form of the work experience plan, including counseling and in-school instruction, should follow the functions or purposes (educational outcomes) desired." For example, if occupational competence is the goal, the *length* of the experience at work and the intensity of school course work related to the training objective would probably be longer than that of the experience required in a program of occupational exploration. If income for the student is the primary goal, then ***almost any legal employment*** might suffice. On the other hand, a specific career goal by the student would require a *carefully selected training station* complete with appropriate course work.

Generic Use of the Term "Work Experience"

The term "work experience" is widely used to describe any curriculum plan that employs experience in a productive work setting to derive desired educational outcomes. However, what many people call work experience is not occupational education. Furthermore, work experience plans are general in nature, while supervised occupational experience plans are vocational in nature, even at the college level. This fundamental distinction, when properly understood, will enable educational personnel to determine the organizational and operational techniques necessary to devise the type of plan that will bring about desired educational outcomes.

Five Basic Types of Plans Using Experience in Work Situations

The world of work is the scene of many school-sponsored learning experiences. Although there are hundreds of programs in educational institutions, there are only five basic types of plans.

For general education purposes:

1. **Work observation plans**
2. **General work experience plans**

For occupational education purposes:

3. **Work-study plans and work exploration plans**
4. **Cooperative occupational education plans**
5. **Internships and practicums**

The types of plans using the work environment and the significant characteristics of each are illustrated in Table 1-1. The work plans described have

TABLE 1-1

Five Basic Types of Plans That Use the World of Work as an Educational Experience

Work Observation	General Work Experience	Work-Study and Internships	Cooperative Occupational Education
Student observes work, does not perform tasks except to understand them. Is unpaid. Plan is usually few weeks in length at most and may be tied in with a class in which occupational information is discussed.	Student performs tasks of the actual job. May or may not be paid. Is typically engaged in for general education values, including exploratory. Is usually one semester or less. Limited school supervision, usually no related class.	Student performs in approved job situation. Usually paid and given credit. In-school instruction usually given before work period and seldom tied in directly with job experiences. Typically one semester or more. "Internship" or "practicum" is a term used for collegiate experiences.	Occupational goals based on student's career objective. Work situation is an occupational laboratory for classroom instruction. Selected training stations. Correlated instruction in school. Pay and credit. Consistent school supervision. Typically at least one year.

several characteristics in common: (1) each uses a work situation as the source of learning experiences; (2) each is part of the institution's curriculum, regardless of whether or not the experience is during school hours; (3) each involves school approval of the job and at least minimal school supervision; and (4) each includes an observance of local, state, and federal labor laws. However, further analysis of Table 1-1 will reveal that the major differences between plans occur first in purpose and second in their organizational and instructional characteristics, such as the length and depth of the experience, the relationship of the training firm to the student's career goal, the amount and type of supervision, and the provision for instruction in school related to the experience.

With these five types of plans broadly differentiated, the differences between general work experience and cooperative occupational education can be compared.

General Work Experience Plans

Curriculum planners, administrators, and teachers who are concerned with helping students develop their abilities to their individual limits have seized upon the work environment as a useful adjunct to the curriculum. Indeed, schools display an amazing variety of curriculum patterns in which work experience is used as a way to learn. The variety of uses is such that classification into basic types becomes quite difficult. However, if such plans are analyzed, two useful classification criteria emerge. These are: (1) the major outcomes expected from the plan and (2) the type of student for whom the plan is intended.

Exploratory and general **work experience plans** found in the curricula of secondary schools are typically of four basic types. These are:

1. ***Out-of-school non-remunerative exploratory work experience plans.***—As a phase of the guidance program, students in some schools are "observers" or "student-learners" in physicians' or dentists' offices, in architects' studios, in hospitals, with city and county officials, in banking concerns, or in other business and professional situations. In this plan the principal objective is guidance, an exploration of occupations in which the students believe they have a career interest.
2. ***Out-of-school non-remunerative community service work experience education.***—In this type of work experience education, students accept assignments to local social service agencies, elementary schools, libraries, and other public service groups. They work on community

service projects. The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) places students in public service, as well as private, employment situations.

3. ***In-school non-remunerative general work experience plans.***—Students can profit from performing regular work tasks. In many schools, students are released from regular classes to act as helping teachers, as assistants and clerks for teachers and administrators, as maintenance workers, etc. This work is generally done without remuneration, although in some cases an outside agency provides funds for paying for work when it is performed by students who are economically disadvantaged.
4. ***Remunerative general work experience plans in junior high schools.***—Here the general educative values of productive work experiences are recognized by well-planned programs, including guidance activities, placement services, and adequate coordination by a special teacher, and in many cases by scheduling for these work experience students a special class dealing with the problems of job success. The students are engaged in any acceptable and legal work assignment and are paid a reasonable wage for their work.

The discussion thus far has shown that work experience plans are general rather than vocational in nature. Work experience plans involve students in the environment of real jobs, either as (1) observers or as (2) workers. From the descriptions of the four types of plans, it is apparent that among the purposes of general work experience are these:

1. To help students explore occupations, experiencing their demands and testing their interests.
2. To provide youth with opportunities to earn money to help with school or family expenses.
3. To motivate potential dropouts to remain in school, at least to the extent of getting further general education.
4. To provide students with experience at working so as to develop general personal characteristics.

While it is conceivable and demonstrable that a student who works *may* develop some occupational competencies, it should be clear that work in and of itself does not necessarily develop employable skills. Thus, general work experience plans should not be considered as vocational programs. As the personnel director once said to the applicant who claimed five years of experience, "Have you had five years of experience or one year five times?"

OPERATIONAL DESCRIPTIONS OF WORK EXPERIENCE PLANS

The term "work experience plans" has been used generically to describe varying general education plans that use the work situation as a teaching-learning device. Let's now look at some of these basic types of general education plans to learn about their operational characteristics and, hence, their similarities and differences.

Exploratory work experience plans.—Secondary schools have used work experience to help young people learn firsthand of an occupation by either observing it or engaging in productive work. In general, the work experience plan for career exploration purposes has been of limited length, such as six weeks, nine weeks, or perhaps a full semester. In such plans the amount of each school day devoted to the work experience is no more than a half-day, and in most cases, it is usually only one or two periods plus some time after school. In some schools, only one exploratory work experience is allowed; in others, students may schedule several short-term experiences during a semester or a year. The apparent rationale for the short length of the experience is that the student need not invest a great number of hours in order to see, at least in broad outline, the nature of the occupation and the demands it makes upon abilities. The student can conduct a self-assessment against the occupation in a relatively short time.

Most schools that report exploratory plans have a class to which the experience is attached. Usually the class is one in which career guidance is the primary content, with the teacher being either a counselor or an academic teacher who has had some professional training in guidance and counseling. Some schools report that the class meets for one period daily; others report but one hourly session per week. Generally, students are not paid for the work if the work experience is for a short term, such as six weeks. On the other hand, in longer, more intensive placements, such as a semester for half-days, students actually engage in productive work and are paid. Most schools attempt to be quite selective regarding the employing firms or the professional persons with whom the students are placed, recognizing the intimate role that can be played in guidance by identification and by conversations between student and sponsor.

There are some secondary schools that have used other approaches to fulfill the exploratory function of work experience. Some have simply released students the last period of the day to work when and where they wished, with little or no supervision by the school and no related class in school. However, if the students do not have the guidance of learning activities, at least related to working in general, the school cannot assure itself that desired learning outcomes occur. Other schools have more formal programs, lasting half-days for a full year, with placement approved or obtained by school supervisors, but these programs are conducted without any related classes. In such cases, the schools rely on the initiative of the students to find jobs appropriate to their career interests. This can create a problem, because some occupations are closed to part-time teenage workers and because many students will choose jobs on the basis of the income to be earned rather than the learning to be acquired. There appears to be an unjustified faith in the ability and initiative of the students to draw occupational meanings from the experience. Students need some organized instructional time in school in which they can discuss their work experiences with other students, have the help of a trained counselor-teacher, and engage in learning activities that provide information and understanding about occupations. Exploratory work experience plans have in common the following characteristics: (1) placements carefully selected to meet the career interests of each student, (2) experiences with sponsoring firms whose management and supervising employees understand their guidance role, and (3) classes in school taught by credentialed vocational teachers or counselors (vocational counselors) who can help young people interpret their experiences.

It should be clear that in exploratory work experience plans:

1. There should be no *intent* to teach any job skills or knowledges, although the students probably will pick up some in the process.
2. The chief purpose of participation is that of providing vocational guidance so that each student gains a systematic sampling of a variety of conditions of work.[2]

Released-time work experience (work placement) plans.—Some secondary and post-secondary schools have the policy of releasing students from their last-period study halls or from some classes in order for them to engage in paid employment. Typically, the school issues a work permit and keeps a record of where the students are employed. Some schools go further and assign personnel to assist students in finding jobs and to act as community placement service officers for part-time positions. A few schools provide personnel who make routine follow-up visitations about once a semester. A student only coincidentally may be taking any courses in school that relate to the job, and only coincidentally may the job relate to that student's occupational goal. These plans are, in effect, not a part of the curriculum, and no credit is given. Therefore, it seems quite logical not to classify them as being work experience plans. However, because school administrators sometimes call them "work experience plans," they have been so classified in this text, even though the purpose seems to be either to allow students to earn money or to relieve some students (particularly over-age students and low achievers) from the "burden" of attending school full time. Certainly, without careful supervision or the organization of related learning experiences, such work placement programs cannot be presumed to be part of the curriculum of the school.

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[2] These two conditions are those contained in the recommendations of Clarence Fielstra, *Work Experience Program in Santa Barbara County High School Districts*, Santa Barbara County Board of Education, California, 1961.

General work experience plans.—The chief criterion that a work experience plan must meet to be classified as a general work experience plan is: "Are the outcomes derived from the plan general in nature rather than vocational, or are they contributing to the solution of special education problems?" Although many types of work experiences plans are considered general work experience plans, they are not, according to this text, because the plans are: (1) not part of the school's curriculum, (2) not carefully supervising students, (3) not using a related class, and (4) not carefully selecting work stations.

Outcomes.—The basic outcome of the general work experience plan is an understanding of the world of work and the development of acceptable work habits, attitudes, and personality traits. While the student may learn some vocational skills and information relevant to a particular occupation or job, these are clearly perceived as being incidental to the main purpose. The primary outcome is to help students develop those habits, abilities, and characteristics that are of value in any occupational field and on any job, from unskilled to professional. Quite obviously, the plan also provides opportunities for occupational exploration and the development of career interests.

Operational aspects.—The general work experience plan is typically offered to eleventh- and twelfth-grade students, although tenth-grade students are sometimes enrolled in special circumstances. The plan is part of the curriculum, even though the actual working hours are primarily or even exclusively after school. Credit is given, but the students are not always paid. A class in school is required of all students, and the content of the course that is taught by the program supervisor relates to general occupational needs and individual personal needs. The school selects training stations that will match the students' interests and that will provide job supervision and attention to the students' needs. The following is a checklist of conditions of operation that a general work experience plan should meet at least minimally.

1. ***Selection of students.***—Counselors should be involved in determining the students' interests, aptitudes, and motivations for enrolling in the

program. Students wishing specific vocational preparation should be referred to vocational programs.

2. ***Selection of work stations and placement.***—The work station need not be related to the student's occupational goal, because the purpose of the program is not vocational preparation. For the student who wishes to try out a given occupation, placement in a training station relating to the student's career aspirations is obviously important. The supervisory personnel at the work stations should understand the purposes of the program and be able to help students understand the world of work. Students may "find" their own stations, but no placements should be made until the program supervisor has made an evaluation visit to each station and has explained the purposes of the plan to the various employers.
3. ***Written agreement of employment.***—A placement should be approved only after the work permit has been approved as a memorandum of agreement signed by employer, school, student, and parent. The agreement should state the conditions of employment and the responsibilities of each party to the others.
4. ***Evaluation of students.***—The student's performance on the job must be evaluated. The employer should prepare a written evaluation of the student's performance and schedule a conference to review the student's performance on the job. In addition, the supervisor should evaluate the student's progress during visits to the station. It is recommended that the supervisor make job visitations once a month, or at least twice a semester, exclusive of rating conferences.
5. ***Supervision of the program.***—To prevent the program from becoming strictly a released-time learning situation, consistent supervision by the school is necessary. Depending on travel distances and other factors, such as newness of the program, the supervisor (coordinator) should be allotted supervision time in the ratio of one period for every 15 students. But, if the supervisor is paid on an extended-day contract, the ratio can easily be 1:20, or 60 students for a three-period allocation for program supervision.
6. ***Employment of trained supervisor.***—The supervisor need not be a vocational teacher because the program is of a general education nature. Rather, the supervisor needs some training in counseling and sufficient recent experience in the world of work to be able to work with businesspersons. The supervisor will be in the community making contacts with business and industry on a regular basis; therefore, that person must present a favorable image of the school, or the school's credibility will deteriorate.

7. ***Use of related class.***—Every student of general work experience should be enrolled in a course that promotes general occupational understandings and provides for individual counseling. The **related class** might meet daily for one period, although weekly or monthly arrangements may fulfill the need. The course should be taught by the teacher-coordinator because that person knows the student and the work situation. The related class does not teach specific vocational content.
8. ***Interpretation of the plan.***—One of the prime responsibilities of the supervisor is that of interpreting the plan to other teachers, the employers, the students, and their parents. The supervisor should make use of public relations channels established at the school and provide for face-to-face interpretation of the plan at every opportunity.
9. ***Maintenance of adequate records.***—Adequate records regarding items such as work assignments and hours worked, work permits, individual student personnel folders, ratings, and follow-up studies should be kept by the supervisor.

Work-Study Plans

The term "work-study" has been used in many ways, and in recent years, it has taken on some very diversified meanings, which have caused considerable confusion as well as misinterpretation of program administration guidelines. If the various local work-study plans are classified according to goals and relationship of work experiences to occupational goals and in-school learning experiences, three shapes emerge. They are:

1. A plan wherein students who are enrolled in a vocational curriculum find jobs in the same general line of work or cluster of occupations. The students work with school approval, but the jobs and the school instruction are not correlated in the sense that the in-school classes are tied daily and directly to job needs. What is assumed in such situations is that not only will the students learn vocational skills on the job, but they will also relate them to the classes.
2. A scheme in which the students who are enrolled in a vocational curriculum are also employed part time during school hours. The jobs are usually not related to the vocational curriculum, but the income and motivation are believed to enable the students to continue and to complete the vocational studies. Often these positions are in nonprofit agencies. Such a program can be correctly termed "vocational"

only if the students are enrolled in a vocational curriculum. But, in most cases, the work situation normally is not correlated with the in-school vocational instruction. Therefore, the term "cooperative education" does not apply by strict definition.

3. A situation in which students are given jobs regardless of their school curricula, in order to furnish them on school time with a situation that provides both income and, hopefully, the motivation to continue their education and to finish high school. Some describe these as the "beer-and-cigarette–money programs." Some believe these programs are effective with some students who need the will (motivation) in their value systems to continue their education.

   These types of programs do not necessarily provide students with occupational education because they cannot be classified as vocational education. However, some students do learn a skill from their income job or from the vocational curriculum in which they are coincidentally enrolled at the school.

As shown by the preceding discussion, the term "work-study" is found in practice to have several meanings, none of which can truly be called cooperative vocational education, since the essential correlation of school and job learnings in tandem with a defined career objective is missing. Does this mean that none of these approaches is occupationally useful? Not at all. Look at each, and you will see that even coincidental vocational education has merit. But a program, to be classified as vocational, must have the essential ingredients that make it accountable.

The previous description of the work-study plan and programs was related to the secondary school. However, the term "work-study" can also be used at the collegiate level and, in such cases, applies to situations mainly where students in one term (or several) learn the theory and principles of the occupation and in subsequent (one or several alternating) terms are on the job in a full-time capacity, presumably applying what has been learned. Here again, the value of the student experience on the job need not be questioned, nor should it be assumed that the students are not applying what has been learned. What is to be questioned is the role of the school in directly and accountably scheduling the work experiences according to each student's needs and in providing in some way a means for insuring that the students do indeed apply and profit from what is learned. If such plans rely upon the goodwill of the employers to provide needed training and concomitant explanation, as well as upon the assumption that the students have the maturity to meet their own learning needs, these plans are not directed. And this absence of school-directed learning on the job, which is correlated in a time sequence with classroom instruction, means that so-called collegiate work-study plans cannot be described as cooperative occupational education.

Although work-study plans and cooperative occupational education plans have some common goals and similar characteristics, there is a fundamental difference between them. The major difference is the basic purpose and, therefore, the provision of related instruction. In work-study plans the purpose is general occupational education, and the instruction in school is only generally related to the work of the training station. There is no effort to teach topics in the order in which they are needed on the student's job. Individual learning needs stemming from the job are not usually a focus of instruction. In addition, the instruction in school is often given *before* the job experience, rather than *concurrently* with it. Lastly, the occupational experience may be only generally related to the student's career goal, rather than contributing directly to it.

In contrast, in cooperative occupational education plans the goal is both general and specific occupational education. The instruction is said to be *correlated*; that is, there is a direct relationship between the study in school and the activities of the training job, both of which are based on a career objective. This correlation involves both (1) the *sequence of learning* (what is studied when) and (2) the *application of learning* (what is learned in school and then applied on the job, with the results being reported in the classroom). In addition, the students will have some individual instruction in school; that is, each student will examine some things not studied by other students, because of individual job needs and individual career goals. Besides the basic difference in instruction between work-study and cooperative education, there are other differences. However, they are more a matter of degree than of contrast. For example, the supervision of the occupational experience in the training firm is likely to be more consistent in cooperative education than in work-study.

An illustration of a work-study plan will serve to point up the indirectness of the related instruction as compared to that in a cooperative plan. The illustrative program comes from the field of business education. At Westport High School (a fictitious institution), seniors who are preparing for stenographic careers may elect the work-study plan. In the eleventh grade the students complete one year of typewriting and one year of shorthand. If they elect the work-study plan, they will be placed in an office during the second semester of the twelfth grade, working each afternoon from 1 to 5. Any student who has a C average or better is accepted. The firms that provide the training are to pay the trainees the regular beginning wage and are expected to give them as many varieties of experience as possible. The school supervisor (not the teacher) visits the training stations only once during the semester to check on the student's progress. In the twelfth grade the students take second-year shorthand and advanced typewriting. In the typewriting and shorthand classes are other students who are not working.

While the work-study students *may* apply what they are learning to their jobs, the teacher does not discuss job problems with them, nor does the sequence of instruction change because of their job needs. Indeed, if one of the working students needed instruction, say, in billing, the student would not receive it because it is not usually taught in typewriting and shorthand classes. Thus, from this description of the work-study plan at Westport High School, you can see that the job is only indirectly related to the instruction in school. What is learned on the job depends on what the employer wishes to teach by on-the-job coaching. However, this example also reveals that the plan, in addition to having an indirect vocational purpose, does indeed provide general occupational experience.

Cooperative Occupational Education and Career Development Plans

Cooperative occupational education plans have as their central purpose the development of occupational competence, using employment in real jobs as a source of learning. The school selects as training agencies firms that will provide the occupational experiences needed by the students and the school supervises the students' experiences. Class work in school provides those learnings basic to employment and to the occupation sought. The occupational experience is expected to be the source for gaining knowledges as well as a vehicle for applying and testing what has been learned in school.

The 1984 Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (Public Law 98-524) defines "cooperative education" as:

> The term "cooperative education" means a method of instruction of vocational education for individuals who, through written cooperative arrangements between the school and employers, receive instruction by including required academic courses and related vocational instruction alternation of study in school with a job in any occupational field, but the two experiences must be planned and supervised by the school and employers so that each contributes to the student's education and to his or her employability. Work periods and school attendance may be on alternate half days, full days, weeks, or other periods of time in fulfilling the cooperative program.[3]

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[3] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984* (Public Law 98-524), Title V, Part B—"Definitions," Sec. 521 (7).

KEY ELEMENTS OF THE COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PLAN

Not only does this text describe various uses of the work environment in plans that fulfill the school's purposes, but it also endorses such situations in which the school has carefully outlined objectives and made the necessary inputs of resources to insure attainment of those objectives. There is no intent to decry general work experience plans as not being vocational—rather, all educationally sound plans are endorsed. But, it is the goal of the authors to help educators distinguish between general education plans using the work environment and those that are truly vocational (Table 1-2). All too often school administrators have been led to believe that if a student was released from school and was working, the student was indeed in a vocational program. This is not the case, because the true measure of distinguishing between a cooperative occupational education plan and a general work experience plan is several key conditions. These are:

1. ***The primary and overriding purpose is to provide occupational competence at a defined entry level.***—Instruction must be geared to a set of definable performance objectives, and providing students with financial assistance, or employment, or even the inducement to stay in school must be a secondary consideration.
2. ***The instruction both in school and at the training stations is based upon the student's career goal.***—It is this interest that provides the student's motivation for learning.
3. ***The kind, extent, and sequence of the training station learning experiences correlate closely with the kind, extent, and sequence of the in-school learning experience.***—This correlation is maintained by a coordinator who also teaches or by a coordinator who has sufficient time to work closely with the instructors of the students.
4. ***Students may elect the cooperative plan only when they possess the employability characteristics acceptable in the market place, as well as the necessary basic knowledges and skills prerequisite to employment.***—To use a quotation attributed to Charles A. Prosser, the student who enters cooperative instruction "must want it, need it, and be able to profit from it."
5. ***The employment situation must be truly a training station where the firm understands and accepts its teaching responsibility and where an individual is given time to act as a training sponsor, one who can fulfill the role of the downtown laboratory teacher.***

6. ***Not only are the employment conditions legal employment, but they are also acceptable by all other standards of the school.***
7. ***The coordinator has sufficient time to carry out coordination responsibilities and to be accountable for quality education.***
8. ***Individualized learning activities, remediation as needed, and interaction with the program of a vocational student organization characterize instruction.***

TABLE 1-2

Comparison of Three Plans Using the Work Environment[1]

Components or Characteristics	**Cooperative Education**	**Work-Study**	**Work Experience**
1. Established career objective by student	Yes, primary objective is entry employment training toward career	Sometimes yes, established in some vocational field. Program objective is usually earning power and motivation for student	No, but sometimes has general education values
2. Classroom instruction related to career objective	Yes	Not necessarily	No
3. Established training station and close supervision by school	Yes	Not usually	No
4. On-the-job training plan	Yes	No	No
5. Paid employment	Yes, usually by profit-making business	Yes (in some plans through government subsidy)	Not necessarily
6. Advisory committee used	Yes	No	No
7. Vocational student organization correlated with instruction	Yes	No	No
8. Certified teacher-coordinator in occupational field	Yes	No	No
9. Planned home visitations	Yes	No	No

[1] Source: Ralph E. Mason, "The Effective Use of Cooperative Work Experience," *Business Education Forum*, Vol. 24, May 1970, p. 10.

Above all, the key element is the visible and real support by all functioning units of the school in close interaction and communication with the community being served.

Internships/Practicums

Generally, world-of-work experiences that are referred to as **internships** or **practicums** are offered by post-secondary institutions, colleges, and universities, which use the work environment in their curricula for two purposes: (1) to further the aims of general education by acquainting their graduates firsthand with the dignity of work and with the significance of work in a contemporary society and (2) to provide their students with the opportunity to sample areas of professional service and to test their own abilities and interests against the demands of these occupations. (Chapter 9 presents an in-depth discussion of cooperative education at the post-secondary and collegiate levels.)

The internship is well known to college personnel because of its widespread inclusion in baccalaureate curricula preparing individuals for professional positions. In some institutions it may be called a practicum. It is frequently used in educating teachers, physicians, social workers, and counselors. In a number of situations, it is used to educate school administrators, labor economists, engineers, police administrators, and various business personnel, such as accountants, sales representatives, and retail managers.

The term "internship' or "practicum" generally describes a technique within a collegiate curriculum with the following characteristics:

1. It is used in professional or sub-professional curricula at collegiate levels (in two- and four-year institutions).
2. It is undertaken typically as a culminating experience prior to the student's graduation, but after preliminary classroom work.
3. It occurs in an actual professional job situation in which the intern experiences the requirements of employment.
4. It is conceived primarily as a way of enabling the student to apply the concepts and skills learned in the college classroom rather than as a way of learning new skills and knowledges.
5. It is usually a full-time resident experience and typically at least three months in length in order to provide a complete experience.
6. It places the intern usually in a firm or an agency that is selected by the college for its progressive method of operation.

7. It has a professional person, who has been selected because of his/her ability, professionalism, and competence as a trainer to supervise the student at the internship agency.
8. It may or may not pay the intern a salary, usually at a reduced rate, because the person is a trainee, who is not fully productive all of the work time.

It is important to recognize that internships have as their major purpose the development of occupational (professional) competence through practice *after* theory education has been completed. Because they provide directed occupational experience tied to related course work, such situations are akin to the secondary cooperative occupational training programs.

Some colleges have freshman- or sophomore-year experiences wherein the student is placed on a job, part or full time. These, however useful, cannot be properly referred to as "internships," because the goal is usually one of having the student *explore the field* and experience its requirements *before undertaking the major portion of the professional course work.*

Internships have become more widely included in college curricula. Such arrangements have demonstrated their value in aiding students in the transition from formal schooling to the actual professional situation. Employing firms and agencies like the arrangement because it gives them, first, the opportunity to "screen" interns for future employment and, second, the chance to "sell" the interns on employment with them. However, there is a more important reason for the prediction of increasing numbers of internships. Collegiate-level curriculum makers seem to be embarked on a program to eliminate "vocational" courses from their curricula, preferring instead to emphasize liberal arts and a core of professional theory-oriented courses.[4] Faculties are on record as opposing "how-to-do-it" courses, stressing preparation for a career rather than for the initial job. It is quite likely that the internship will serve to provide much of the job-entry operational training that is removed from the curriculum.

A Comparison of Cooperative Occupational Education with Work Experience Education

There is in some schools and among some groups of educators a degree of confusion about the differences between cooperative occupational education and work experience education. In some cases the confusion has been due to the surface resemblance of the plans—with the superficial observers, who, having seen one, believe they have seen the other. In other cases confusion has arisen from poorly operated cooperative education plans—ones that turned out to be just plain work experience through errors such as inadequate supervision, lack of correlated classroom instruction, and the enrollment of nonqualified students. In still other cases, educators have compounded the problem by a semantics error, that of using the term "work experience" to describe any situation in which a student obtains experience on an actual job.

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[4] This trend is particularly evident in engineering and business administration curricula

Situation A	***Situation B***
The school is concerned with developing outcomes suitable for *all* students:	The school is concerned with developing outcomes for those who are preparing for the world of work:
1. Occupational exploration and personality development as facets of the education of the whole person.	1. Learnings that all workers need to know.
2. Common learnings—what all workers need to know—as a part of general education.	2. Knowledges, abilities, and attitudes that only the worker in a given occupational field needs to know.
If these outcomes are to be learned through a job situation, then the method is:	*If* these outcomes are to be learned through a job situation and correlated study in school, then the method is:
WORK EXPERIENCE EDUCATION	**COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION**

In addition, the following differences typically occur between the plans.

Work Experience Education	***Cooperative Occupational Education***
1. Usually has as its primary goal the improvement of general education, the gaining of exploratory occupational experiences, or the holding of the student in school.	1. Has as its primary goal the development of occupational competency.
2. Is based on the student's general education needs or need for employment to remain in school.	2. Is based on the student's stated career objectives.

3. Places student in position as a "producing worker" or as an observer.	3. Places student in position as a "learning worker."
4. Often utilizes any available part-time job.	4. Places the trainee in a job commensurate with his/her ability and career objectives.
5. Usually relies on the job to provide trainee experiences; the in-school class (not always used) is not usually directly related to the job.	5. Provides classroom activities directly related to job activities and to the trainee's occupational goal.
6. Provides job rotation that is usually coincidental rather than part of a planned program.	6. Provides the trainee with a variety of job experiences, often involving rotation through different departments of the firm.
7. Usually open to any student without restrictions of selection.	7. Selects students who "need the instruction, want it, and can profit from it."
8. Utilizes any firm that can provide employment within legal and moral limits.	8. Utilizes as training stations those firms that responsibly can and will provide training.
9. Often makes supervision an "extra" assignment for a person with a full-time teaching load.	9. Underscores the responsibility of the school by employment of an occupationally competent coordinator with sufficient time to provide consistent program direction.
10. Usually limits school supervision to job approval.	10. Emphasizes a program of coordinator job visitations and employer conferences to plan learning experiences, evaluate trainee's progress, and aid in solving any problem.
11. Provides that student may or may not be paid, depending on the type of program operated.	11. Requires that the trainee be employed at the "going" rate of pay for trainees in the occupation.

A number of analyses similar to the preceding appear in vocational literature. Another description of what cooperative vocational education is and is not is illustrated in Table 1-3. In many cases these analyses appear to create the impression that general work experience is undesirable because it lacks related instruction and employs limited supervision. This point is not valid, because general work experience plans can range from poor to excellent, depending on how they are operated. For those in vocational education, the important point to be understood is that general work experience can be successful in its *general* objectives of keeping youth in school, providing general work experience, and giving exploratory experiences; but, it is quite improbable that general work experience plans can develop occupational competence. Developing job competence following career objectives of students is the task of cooperative occupational education.

This discussion has served to underscore an important generalization. Work experience plans and cooperative education plans serve different purposes; in common, each utilizes experience on a job but via a different set of organizational, operational, and instructional practices and for dissimilar purposes. Therefore, each method should be recognized for what it can do most effectively and efficiently. Neither per se is "good" or "poor"; the paramount point is that school personnel should understand the differences between the plans, choose the one that will best meet their objectives, and then provide the resources necessary for the success of the method chosen.

Major Purposes of the Work Environment Using Educational Plans

If all the variations of work experience and cooperative occupational education plans in the schools could be viewed as a whole, a series of controlling purposes could be synthesized. A full understanding of the purposes of work experience and cooperative occupational education plans, shown in Table 1-3, is fundamental. All who are involved in the cooperative plan—school administrators, counselors, teachers, coordinators, employers, students, and parents—must understand the significance of these purposes, that determine the operating practices of the plan and the resources devoted to it. Bewilderment about purpose reflects itself in a confused plan —one in which groups fail to perceive their roles and, in some cases, actually contradict each other's actions.

As shown in Table 1-4, the first three purposes are in essence "controlling" purposes and, in general, seek to keep in school those who are likely to drop out before graduation. These purposes are generally those of the unstructured type of general work experience plans, as classified in Table 1-4.

The second group of purposes are those that can be perceived as meeting the general education objectives of the school. These purposes would be suit-

TABLE 1-3

Basic Facts About the Cooperative Plan of Occupational Instruction

It Is	It Is *Not*
1. An attempt to acquaint trainees with the realities of the world of work and to help them adjust and make the transition from school to work.	1. A way to force students who are hard to handle out of the general classroom.
2. A planned career development program, designed at a minimum to produce entry-level competence.	2. A way for students to make money.
3. An opportunity for employers to assist in training—for themselves or for the occupational world in general.	3. A way to lighten the load of the classroom instructors by putting the educational burden on the community.
4. A method whereby instructors of in-school occupational courses can get feedback from potential employers of the trainees.	4. A way to cut job rates for full-time workers.
5. A logical approach for a pre-employment program designed to break the poverty cycle of some youth.	5. A panacea for the student's shortcomings, personal and/or academic, or to overcome a history of failure.
6. A means of providing realistic opportunities to apply and test skills and knowledges learned in school.	6. A "gimmick" to be discarded after a short trial; short-term as well as long-term commitment of resources is necessary.

able for the following types of plans: work observation, general work experience (with some type of related class), and work-study plans of limited duration.

The third group of purposes are obviously vocational in nature because they prepare students for careers in the world of work. These purposes are attributable to work-study plans when limited depth of preparation (general occupational training) is desired, and to cooperative occupational education plans when career preparation (general *and* specific occupational education) is the goal.

ONE PURPOSE OR SEVERAL

Some plans may have but one primary purpose; others may have several. However, even though a plan has one primary purpose undergirding it, varying secondary purposes may be applicable to individual students. For example, a cooperative business, marketing, or trade and industrial plan would have for every student the primary purpose of developing occupational competence (numbers 7 and 8 in Table 1-4), but within the class, Student A may also need money to remain in school (number 1), while Student B may have a

TABLE 1-4

Controlling Purposes of Work Experience Plans

A. Drop-Out Reducing Purposes

1. Earn money.
    - Continue in school.
    - Keep social standing.
2. Cure maladjustments.
    - Alleviate failure elsewhere.
    - Eliminate behavior problems.
3. Control employment.
    - Control placement.
    - Control hours.
    - Control working conditions.

B. Social Development Purposes

4. Provide social experiences.
    - Appreciate dignity of labor.
    - Appreciate economic order.
    - Understand adults.
5. Develop emotional stability.
    - Provide independence from parents.
    - Build self-confidence.
    - Instill sense of "belonging."
    - Develop personality and character.
6. Aid in selecting vocation.
    - Try out interests.
    - Analyze self.
    - Discover talents.

C. Vocational Purposes

7. Provide general occupational training.
    - Form work habits and attitudes.
    - Understand employer and co-workers.
    - Train for an area.
8. Provide specific occupational training in skills, knowledges, judgments, understandings, and attitudes.

(8) Provide specialized occupational training **A**
(7) Provide general occupational training
(6) Aid in selecting vocation
(5) Develop emotional stability
(4) Provide social experiences
(3) Control employment **B**
(2) Cure maladjustments
(1) Earn money

FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT AND LIFE AS AN ADULT

OR

FURTHER TECHNICAL OR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

particular need for the development of self-confidence (number 5). It is not conceivable that one plan could be structured so as to carry out effectively *all* purposes for *all* students.

The relationship of Table 1-4 to the cooperative plan can be summarized concisely as follows:

1. It would be *understandable* for a cooperative plan to have numbers 1 and 3 as *major* purposes.
2. It is considered undesirable for the plan to concentrate on students in the number 2 category.
3. Numbers 4, 5, and 6 emphasize the contribution of cooperative education to the fundamental general education objectives of the school.
4. Numbers 7 and 8 reveal the basic purpose of cooperative education—the development of occupational competence that will gain for the student a satisfying life as an employed adult who is contributing to a more effective economic world.

A Summary View

In the past, schools were asked to communicate the basics of math, English, history and other social studies courses; a little art and music, some physical education, perhaps several foreign languages, and, on occasion, home economics and industrial arts. Schools were then asked to assume the responsibility for some additional "teachings" to include sex education and driver education. Schools are now being asked to bridge the gap between school and work. The career education movement has more clearly identified the school's role in helping individuals select satisfying careers.

Work and careers cannot, and should not, be separated from other aspects of individuals' lives. On the contrary, the evidence is that more and more people view work as an integral part of their total lifestyle, not as a separate activity. Increasingly, education and other institutions are collaborating and becoming more involved in expanding the educational environment beyond the school into the "real" world of work. These efforts all recognize, to some degree, the need for work experiences as a necessary part of the total school curriculum. Capitalizing upon the learning potential of experiences derived from on-the-job applications has produced many different types of plans that use the work environment in the curriculum. In this chapter, various plans that use the work environment have been discussed, primarily in terms of the differences and similarities existing between these plans. In addition, the characteristics of cooperative occupational education—what it is and what it is not and how it differs from other work education plans—have been identified. Cooperative education is the one on-the-job learning plan that can directly assist vocational education in accomplishing its main purpose—to provide future workers and present workers with the skills, knowledges, and attitudes that are realistic in light of future and present job market requirements.

Questions and Activities

1. Do you agree or disagree with this statement: "Some form of experience or observation of the world of work should be included in the curriculum of every senior high school"? Why or why not?
2. Under what circumstances can a school or an educational institution at any level completely turn over the cooperative occupational education of students to an employer?
3. Make arrangements to study some type of school program that uses the work environment as a teaching situation to accomplish educational objectives. Analyze the program studied. What were the program's objectives? How were these objectives being achieved?
4. Which of the three types of work-study plans described is least appropriate as a vocational plan? Why? Which one comes closest to approximating the cooperative plan? Which elements does it lack?

5. What are the basic differences between a high school and a post-secondary cooperative plan of instruction and a collegiate internship at the baccalaureate level?
6. Make a few brief basic statements about the socio-economic situation in which the schools in your area now find themselves. With this as a premise, what is your prediction about the use of work experience and observation as a means of providing education in your area?
7. Give specific illustrations of why it is that "general work experience plans are unlikely to develop vocational competence except on a coincidental basis."
8. Define "experiential learning." Why do you believe the term has become so popular in educational circles?
9. Prepare a one-page report that clearly distinguishes between a cooperative vocational education plan and a general work experience plan.
10. Under what circumstances can educators justify secondary work experience plans in which the students have no period of time each week in a class group situation with the supervisor of the plan?

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

2

The Development of Human Resources

Hands-on experience motivates student-learners.

KEY CONCEPT: *Vocational education, cooperative education in particular, plays an important role in an individual's own career development and in all human resource development.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Explain why vocational education program needs should be projected through labor market forecasting.
- Identify and explain at least four over-all labor force growth patterns having major impact on the development of occupational programs.
- Explain what major effects demographic trends will have on vocational education in the future.
- Explain the crucial role work plays in the lives of adults in our society.
- Identify and explain three major occupational competencies needed for employment.

KEY TERMS

"assured jobs" program
at-risk population
career development competency
changing occupation
cluster concept

demographic trends
job adjustment competency
job intelligence competency
occupational competencies
net increase (in labor force)
new occupation

It has long been a tenet of vocational education that training and educational programs have to be geared to the demand of the labor market. The occupations for which training is offered are those in which the trainee can find employment in the local labor market. Further, the demands of the job in effect dictate the content of the instruction. When this principle is violated, vocational educators are accorded severe criticism for outmoded curricula.

This basic tenet is still one of primary importance to those interested in occupational and career development education. But, the concept in recent years has been broadened considerably beyond what some saw as narrowly conceived job training programs, focusing only on employer needs and not recognizing individual worker needs. The concept of identifying job market needs reaches far beyond the mere compilation of job availability and entry-level requirements to encompass many facets of the world of work, including assisting employees in successful career development. One facet is the realization that occupational and career education is part of a national policy of human resource development. Another is recognition that situations in the labor market, such as the changing nature of jobs, women's role in the work force, fair employment practices, and employment upgrading, are vital to program planning. Another critical facet is the recognition that a worker's positive self-concept toward his/her role in the world of work is a key to productivity.

The Labor Market as Part of a Strategy

One of the initial strategies in local program planning, whenever the school uses the work environment in vocational programs, is to establish goals that reflect the changing nature of the labor market. In a sense, this is projecting educational needs through labor market forecasting. In a rapidly changing economy, education cannot live in isolation from the realities of labor market demands. But, forecasting labor market demands is no easy task. There are some who believe long-term (5 to 10 years) forecasting is needed if vocational education is to prepare individuals for tomorrow's jobs. No matter what schemes are used for gathering, processing, and drawing conclusions from the data collected, most vocational educators would agree that reliable forecasting of labor market needs is critical to program planning for effective delivery of vocational education.

GROWTH CHANGES IN THE LABOR FORCE PATTERNS

The size and characteristics of the labor force determine the number and types of people competing for jobs. In addition, the size of the labor force affects the amount of goods and services that can be produced. Growth, alterations in the age structure, and rising educational levels are among the labor force changes that will affect employment opportunities through the mid-1990's.

It is projected that the labor force will grow through the year 2000, but at a slower rate than in the 1960's and 1970's. By 2000, the civilian labor force—people with jobs and people looking for jobs—is projected to be about 135 million—an increase of about 19 percent from the 1987 level of 113 million.

Through the mid-1990's, the chief cause of labor force growth will be the continued rise in the number of women who seek jobs. Women will account for about 63 percent of the new entrants in the labor force through the year 2000. Labor force growth will be slower than in the 1960's and 1970's because the lower birth rates during those years will result in fewer young people reaching working age and entering the labor force.

PATTERNS OF CHANGE AMONG OCCUPATIONAL CLUSTERS

The over-all labor force growth patterns are one important element counselor-educators should consider when they are setting goals for vocational education. But, more importantly, are the differential patterns of growth among occupational clusters and in specific job titles within clusters. According to projections, the fastest growing group of occupations will be in the most skilled occupations—executive, professional, and technical. It is predicted that 6 million more jobs will become available in the skilled category within the next decade, as compared to only about 1 million new jobs in the less-skilled and laborer categories.

The completion of high school education has become standard for U.S. workers. Employers are seeking people with higher levels of education because job performance requirements are more complex, thus necessitating higher levels of skill. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, which indicates future employment opportunities in several hundred important occupations, describes the current trend in job performance requirements. A few illustrations are:

1. Farmers have to know much more about scientific and technical phases of their work, which includes fertilization, selection of feed and breeding stock, and identification of animal and plant diseases.
2. Some workers in the craft occupations have had to shift from participation in the production process per se to maintenance and repair work, which requires greater diagnostic ability and more all-around skills.

3. Accountants must understand not only increasingly complex tax laws and accounting methods but also the potentialities and application of computers.
4. Economists must have a much stronger foundation in mathematics and quantitative theory.

While an estimated 80 percent of the job openings in 1990 will require a high school diploma, many jobs, particularly those associated with the production process, will not require a college degree or highly technical training. As automated technology becomes even more widespread, the distinction between operatives—the so-called semi-skilled workers—and laborers becomes less marked. Another factor reducing the skill requirements of some production jobs is the tendency for an increasing proportion of the decisions to be taken away from the on-line worker and to be given to the technician or supervisor. But, whether or not future job openings will or will not necessitate greater technical skills, all jobs will require literacy, dependability, responsibility, and good thinking skills.

AGE GROUPS IN THE LABOR FORCE

Through the year 2000, the number of young people ages 16 to 24 in the work force is projected to decline. Fewer young entrants into the labor force may ease competition for entry-level jobs. In fact, employers may have increasing difficulty in finding young workers. The decline in the number of young people as workers could be particularly important to the Armed Forces—the single largest employer of men in this age group.

The number of people ages 25 to 54 in the labor force is expected to increase considerably, from about two-thirds of the labor force in 1984 to nearly three-fourths by 1995. The number of people age 55 and over in the labor force is projected to decline slightly, reflecting the trend toward early retirement and the drop in the number of people ages 55 to 65.[1]

The Changing Nature of Occupations

The changing nature of the occupational world, the world of work, is in reality an interaction of many forces. Among the major aspects of the forces for change are: (1) changing the makeup of the labor force, (2) changing employment demands in occupational areas, and (3) changing the requirements of worker competence. Educators must analyze carefully the changing occupational "mix" if curricula and counseling are to be responsive to actual job market conditions in the local service area.

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[1] These data were taken from the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986–1987, p. 14. Vocational personnel should consult the latest handbook for current projections.

Vocational education programs have often been slow in matching people and jobs. Until recently, few specific programs had been developed for outreach purposes. Most of these have been designed by the affiliated state offices of the U.S. Employment Service. As federal legislation for vocational education has mandated more aggressive recruiting of **at-risk populations**, outreach programs,[2] which recruit and place certain segments of society, such as minority populations, women, economically and/or academically disadvantaged persons, and physically and/or mentally handicapped persons, are becoming more popular.

THE PEOPLE WHO WORK

From 1986 to 2000, the labor force will grow slower than the population as a whole, mainly because fewer young people will reach working age. Of significance to the educator is that the growth in the labor force is only the **net increase** over this period. The number of new workers entering the labor force far exceeds this figure. The difference between the total entering or re-entering and the new growth of the labor force represents persons absorbed into the labor force as replacements for those workers who, during the same period, have died, retired, or left for some other reason, such as disability, marriage, or child rearing.

WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

Women continue to play a prominent role in the labor market. Not only have they increased in number, but they are also entering occupations at one time considered to be the man's province. The increasing population of women who work will continue to be a major factor contributing to the anticipated increase in the labor force. Through the year 2000, women will account for about 63 percent of the new entrants into the labor force and will make up more than half the labor force. The highest proportion of working women is found in the 35 to 46 age group, with slightly over 50 percent of all women in that age group working. About 50 percent of all women between the ages of 20 and 24 are in the labor force.

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[2] Outreach programs purposely seek out those who are underemployed, physically and/or mentally handicapped, and/or economically and/or academically disadvantaged, and who can benefit from occupational training or retraining.

CHANGES IN THE AGES OF THOSE IN THE LABOR FORCE

The labor market is beginning to be composed of more "older" people. There has been a 25 percent decline in high school enrollment. In the next 15 years, our society will be made up of older people. At the same time that there is a decline in the teenage population, there will be a definite increase in the number of adults in the their 30's and 40's. These predictions are based on national statistics; and local variations will exist. Some geographic areas will probably have population increases, and others, declines. For example, the South and Southwest are still experiencing a population growth, and the East and Midwest a population decline.

The next 15 years will see a "senior citizen boom." The over-55 age group is expected to grow dramatically. By 1995, those over 55 years of age are expected to outnumber the entire number of students enrolled in elementary and secondary schools.

At the same time that the number of teenagers declines and the number of older citizens increases, there will be a substantial difference in the composition of the younger population. The teenage population of minority groups will have a substantial increase and will represent a larger percentage of all younger people. By 1995, non-white young people will represent 18.5 percent of the 14- to 24-year-olds. An estimated 29 percent of the net growth in the work force during the next 15 years will be in minority groups.

The national unemployment rate for teenagers in January 1987 was 17.7 percent, while the overall jobless rate for non-teenagers was 6.7 percent.

The unemployment rate for black teenagers rose from 36.6 percent in 1979 to 38.0 percent in 1987. Some authorities believe, since many black youths are not counted, the actual rate for Hispanics and Native Americans is no better. Because the unemployment rate of all young people is so much higher than for other age groups, changes in the composition of the teenage population have become an even more serious problem.

OCCUPATIONS IN THE POST-INDUSTRIAL ECONOMY

Leading economists and futurists, including Alvin Toffler and John Naisbitt, believe that the U.S. economy is at the threshold of an economic transformation as significant as the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. The post-industrial era has seen manufacturing and agriculture decline in relative importance and the service economy become the key to U.S. economic growth. Today, agriculture employs only about 4 percent of the total work force, while only one of every five U.S. jobs is in manufacturing. Of the 12.6 million new jobs created since the end of the 1982 recession, almost 85 percent have been in service industries. Only about 10 percent of the total number of workers in our economy actually make a product.

The post-industrial economy has created new challenges for vocational education. Life-long learning is essential. A significant number of today's workers are employed in knowledge-related jobs that require the most powerful and modern information technologies.

The Importance of a Job to an Individual's Self-Identity

Most individuals would agree that being employed assumes a crucial role in the lives in our society.

> The job is the central status that ties one to dignity, opportunity, a human social life. The consequences of not being able to work, or of being denied the opportunity to work at the level of one's competence, is not just a matter of money loss; equally important is the consequent social status loss.[3]

In our society, work occupies a large part of an individual's waking hours in actual hours spent at the work station and in many additional hours spent in work-related problems and discussions and in commuting. Furthermore, not only does work provide individuals and their families with a living, but it also determines and influences a person's social life, attitudes, and lifestyle. Even the choice of friends and leisure-time activities, as well as residence, is conditioned to some degree by the job. After reaching adulthood, almost every individual is involved in earning a living. At least half of those in the labor market are women. Many senior citizens live largely on the results of earlier work years. According to the U.S. Department of Labor, the average person works for at least 40 years. Allowing for child bearing, the average young woman can look forward to a work span of about 25 years, even though she may leave and re-enter the labor market several times.

As Kruger points out, through his extensive experience in human resource economics and training:

> Work is, in fact, the way we often identify ourselves. Our economy is truly a job economy. About 90 percent of the American workers are employees. They earn their livelihood through having a job. This

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[3] Mel Ravitz, "Employing the Disadvantaged," a paper presented to the Detroit Common Council, May 10, 1968.

> has not always been the way people in the United States have earned their livelihood. In earlier periods in the nation's history, a substantial proportion of the people worked on the land. At a later time, millions of Americans "worked for themselves" in offices, stores, and in service activities. As our society evolved into a highly urbanized and exceedingly industrialized economy, self-employment declined and working as an employee in private business, industrial firms and in government significantly increased. The job became the most important economic activity in the lives of most of the American people because it provided the central means for earning income.
>
> Consequently, preparing for a job, getting a job, holding a job, separating from a job, and finding another job to replace it are crucial matters for large numbers of persons. Any institution which assists the individual in this process is, therefore, vital to the welfare of the nation, the efficiency of the economic system and the maximum utilization of human resources.[4]

If work is such a primary influence in adult life, being able to have the optimum occupational situation possible is critical. Therefore, the informed and free selection of a person's occupation and proper preparation for it should merit the most careful planning. Educational institutions must give more than lip service to career development and have as a major priority the preparation of students for life. Appropriate resources must be allocated for this priority. No longer can the educational system disregard the fact that probably half or more of our citizens fall into an occupation either by circumstance or by the work available, rather than through their conscious, deliberate, informed free choice related to their own self-concept and preferred lifestyle.

This crucial relationship of the job to adult life is closely related to the economic benefits of employment. In a position paper, "Economic Benefits Accruing Through the Job," Kruger outlined those shown in Figure 2-1.

He underscores his theme by saying:

> If a job and work is so important, it seems that a primary function of education must be to provide meaningful, significant experiences designed to equip the individual for work in which he will be successful, and which will be properly challenging to him in accordance with his aptitudes, interests, and total personality. For many students high school may be the only formal preparation for a lifetime of work and living. Preparation for work can be, must be, and is, done within the schools.[5]

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[4] Daniel Kruger, "The Role of the United States Employment Services in a Changing Economy," statement before the Senate Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower, June 19, 1963.

[5] Daniel Kruger, "Economic Benefits Accruing Through the Job," a position paper, circa 1970.

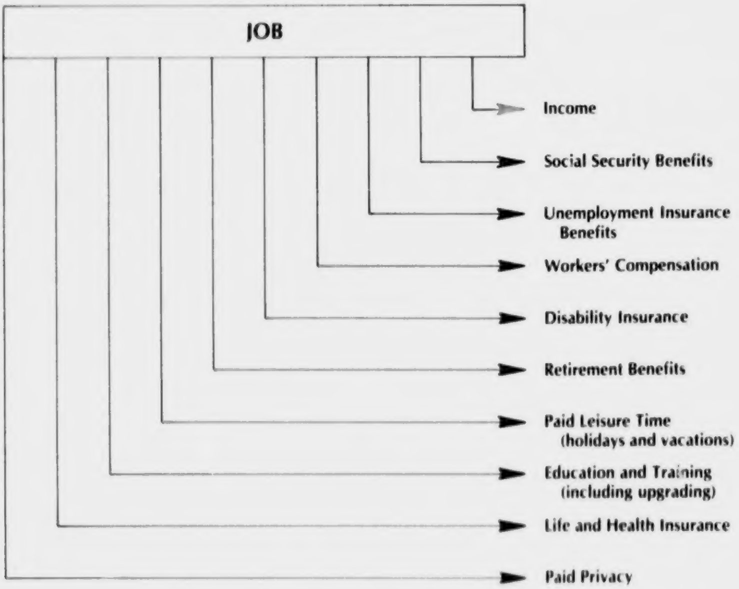
JOB
Income
Social Security Benefits
Unemployment Insurance Benefits
Workers' Compensation
Disability Insurance
Retirement Benefits
Paid Leisure Time (holidays and vacations)
Education and Training (including upgrading)
Life and Health Insurance
Paid Privacy

Fig. 2-1. Adapted from Daniel Kruger's position paper, "Economic Benefits Accruing Through the Job."

The job provides even more than economic benefits. The job is often the focus for the choice of friends, residence, leisure-time activities, and even socio-economic value systems. Being employed is crucial to how persons feel about themselves. The difference between feeling worthless and having a positive self-concept is more often than not closely related to the job.

Getting the right job can make a difference between a life of success and happiness and a life of disappointment and failure. The right job is one that is appropriate to the individual. Not only does it provide income, but it can also enhance or otherwise influence the aesthetic, cultural, and ethical values of the individual.

Work is part of the economic process, but it is also more. Work is a social arrangement. It meets—or has the potential to meet—certain *non-economic* social and psychological needs, in addition to helping to produce goods, services, and income. Work is not merely a means to an end (money and goods); it is a worthy activity and an end in itself. Work—especially in an advanced, affluent society—can provide outlets for creative expression and self-development. It can contribute to building a satisfying identity and self-image for the individual worker. Because work is so important to the individual, the employment outlook is vital for young people and adults.

Occupational Awareness as a Primary Need

Career development education takes into account the crystallization of a career objective (goal). Even a tentative career objective will help promote relevance to "schooling"—the courses and experiences provided by the school. The dropout rate is staggering—800,000 to 1,000,000 or about 25 percent of all high school students drop out each year. Frequently, these dropouts lack employable skills. The welfare and unemployment costs for students who have dropped out are estimated to be over $3 billion.

A person's career choices will be mere fantasies if provision has not been made for self-inventory and assimilation of relevant and realistic occupational information. These efforts must begin by vocational educators working with guidance counselors from the elementary grades through adult education. For example, vocational educators can offer their service in appearing before groups of students or adults to provide information about occupational choices. Vocational educators can be involved in curriculum building that integrates exploratory courses and experiences, especially in grades 6–9. Vocational educators from the occupational fields of agriculture, home economics, business, marketing, industrial, and health occupations, and the like, can arrange team teaching situations in courses such as "Introduction to Vocational Education" and "Survey of Occupations," to expose students to alternative occupational choices. Resource persons from business and industry can be utilized, and on-the-job visitations can be made. The various U.S. Labor Department publications, such as the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and the *Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, are good resources to consult.

The Cluster Concept of Employment Preparation

Students who have completed a vocational program planned around a cluster of occupations probably will be better prepared for technological change. Changes on the job will be more likely expected rather than feared. In the **cluster concept**, instructional programs are developed to provide the skills, knowledges, and understandings common to several related occupations. The content of the courses and the learning experiences include a set of core competencies common to several jobs in an occupational cluster.

Within such a program, the students are prepared to enter a specific job title (or several) within a cluster of occupations. Critics of the cluster concept say such instructional programs sacrifice in-depth competence in a job title. But, those who support the concept argue that graduates of vocational programs designed for a cluster of occupations retain an element of final choice, because the program avoids the danger of closure if any one of the specific occupations within the cluster becomes obsolete or eliminated through technological advancement. Supporters also believe such programs prepare students to adapt more easily as job requirements change.

Other Factors Affecting Occupational Development

Many other factors in addition to labor market demands affect occupational choices and career development plans. A favorable job market is not the only reason students enroll in occupational programs. Factors such as changing educational demands, employment change, fair employment practices, and occupational upgrading determine career choices. These factors are part of the *strategy* of designing an educational program.

CHANGING EDUCATIONAL DEMANDS

Many years ago, jobs were largely dependent on manual activities. Today, jobs are much more cognitive in nature. In other words, workers must depend more and more on their abilities to read instructions, to choose between alternative actions on the job, to make decisions based upon data provided by computers. Technology is changing rapidly, and the economic system is so sensitive that there are often surpluses of jobs in some occupations. And, there is the danger of overeducating individuals—it has become so popular for almost everyone to go to college that many individuals overlooked opportunities in semi-skilled and skilled jobs through secondary programs, postsecondary programs, and apprenticeships.

REASONS FOR EMPLOYMENT CHANGE

Some young people prepare for a first job as a stop-gap earning capacity while they get additional education to prepare themselves for a more advanced occupation, or even for very different employment. Sometimes they try out jobs in search of the one they really want. Having the opportunity to explore various jobs is a very important element of education.

FAIR EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

In recent years, the employment outlook for minority groups has improved. Unfair employment practices have been discouraged, as illustrated by the "Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures," set forth by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in August of 1970.[6] These guidelines define discrimination in employment practices through employment testing procedures. They also are designed to serve as a workable set of standards for schools, employers, unions, and employment agencies in determining whether their selection procedures conform with the obligations contained in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. Fair employment practices legislation helps assure equal treatment in testing, interviewing, and hiring practices. Such legislation protects qualified persons from unfair, discriminatory employment practices.

OCCUPATIONAL UPGRADING—A MULTI-ETHNIC APPROACH TO EMPLOYMENT

There is an increased awareness among educators and employers regarding their responsibilities for the training and employment of minority groups. Education must assume responsibility for fair, accurate, and balanced treatment of minority groups, not only through education and placement but also—just as important—in the development of realistic job goals. Education and training lay the groundwork for occupational upgrading.

The employment problems of minority groups are often complicated because individuals may lack the necessary employment skills and experiences. The situation is critical for minority youth, especially those living in inner-city areas and those in low-income rural areas. A large number of non-whites under the age of 25 who seek work cannot find it. The transition from school to work is very difficult for many students in minority groups. These students need work experiences and the opportunity to develop employable skills.

THREE MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL COMPETENCIES NEEDED

Prospective employees need to learn job application skills, knowledges, and attitudes in order to be employed by prospective employers. Employers ask that employees come to them with enough specific education and training to be employable, but with a broad enough background to be able to move horizontally in a cluster of related occupations as well as vertically for advancement or promotion. It is important for vocational students to recognize the necessity for developing a variety of **occupational competencies** desired by employers. These include: **job intelligence competency**, **job adjustment competency**, and **career development competency**.

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[6] "Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures," *Federal Register*, Vol. 35, No. 149, August 1, 1970, pp. 12333–12336.

Job intelligence competency.—Job intelligence means the possession of skills, knowledges, and attitudes necessary to perform the duties involved in a given occupation. For example, the medical laboratory technician needs not only the usual general education but also the background in certain sciences that are concerned with bacteriological, biological, and chemical tests to provide data for use in diagnosis and treatment. Skill in using microscopes, micrometers, and other instruments is needed. Interest in learning about diseases and an inquiry into such matters are important.

Job adjustment competency.—Job adjustment refers to an employee's ability to develop successfully the interpersonal relationships needed in any new employment situation. These human relations include getting along with co-workers, getting along with supervisors, and knowing how to benefit from supervision.

Career development competency.—Career development includes a realization of the need for experience and further study in order to accomplish an identified career goal. An employee needs to learn to test personal aptitudes, interests, and competencies against the experiences on the job. The employee must then learn to modify the education, training, and goals established so that they remain realistic to his/her personal needs.

Success on the job and advancement toward a career goal are achieved as all three job competencies are developed. Cooperative occupational education programs maximize the opportunities for graduates to have developed all three competencies prior to full-time employment.

Broad Implications for Education

Predicting future labor force needs is no easy task. Some aspects of forecasting are more reliable than others. For example, currently there are severe labor shortages of (1) highly skilled manual workers—crafts workers, technicians, electricians, and repair persons in electronics, and (2) low-status service and industry workers. These workers probably will continue to be in short supply, because there will be fewer young people entering the labor market and because many do not want the low-end (status) jobs. In addition, the highly skilled jobs require highly specialized training and the retraining of adult workers for these jobs is not widely available. Therefore, forecasting future labor shortages in these areas is relatively simple.

Since the employment prospects for individual occupations differ from year to year, it is important to check the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for each occupation in a current source. More detailed statistics on employment, replacement needs, and educational and training program completions are presented in the current (1986) edition of *Occupational Projections and Training Data*, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin 2251. A Statistical and Research Supplement to the *Occupational Outlook Handbook, Occupational Projection and Training Data* is published each year by the U.S. Department of Labor, through the Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington, D.C.

On the other hand, forecasting the number of automobile salespersons needed by the mid-1990's is very difficult because their employment depends not only upon population growth, which affects both the supply of workers and the demand for automobiles, but also upon changes in buyer preferences; changes in the production of automobiles; changes in the level of over-all economic activity, employment, and personal income; and other developments outside the automobile industry that are very difficult, if not almost impossible, to foresee.

To design effective labor force policies requires a strong pool of readily available human resource knowledge and information. Presently, this needed information base does not exist. The existing knowledge and information base is inadequate and does not accurately describe the "real" world of work. An improved knowledge-information base is equally important for forecasting labor needs, creating state and local government agency activities, and developing educational programs and policies.

SPECIFIC IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Of particular importance to those concerned with educating youth for employment is an understanding of the dynamic changes going on in the economy. New production methods, new products, and new lifestyles are continually causing changes in the kinds of jobs available to workers. This process of change calls for a broad foundation of training and education so that, if a shift in plans becomes necessary, a transition from one occupation or field of work to another may be supplemented by training for entry into the initial job; otherwise, unemployment will be the immediate result.

Many of the fast-growing occupations require specialized training. It becomes obvious that a young worker's chances for a steady, well-paying job in many areas of the economy will be substantially less if the student does not possess employable skills. Today, most employers regard a high school diploma as the minimum "certificate of employability." For many fast-growing jobs—especially in the professional, sub-professional, and technical areas—more than a secondary school education is required.

Young people need specialized education to fill the many jobs as technicians, supervisors, and mid-management personnel. For example, with new, automated, computerized equipment being used on a wider scale in offices, banks, insurance companies, and government operations, the skill requirements for clerical and other office jobs have risen. The demand of employers for better trained personnel to operate complicated and expensive machinery is a reality. New developments in machine design, new materials, and complex equipment have made increased skill and technical information necessary for those who design and produce products, sell and demonstrate them, and repair and service them. At the same time, the unskilled jobs that once absorbed many untrained people have narrowed. Young people who have acquired a skill and a good basic education have a better chance at interesting work, good wages, steady employment, and greater satisfaction with life in general.

WHAT IS AN EMERGING OCCUPATION?

Some labor market economists propose that occupational patterns do not change overnight; rather this takes about 12 years. Occupations that are sometimes labeled as new, such as "geriatric social worker," are often existing occupations applied in a specific setting.

Although the terms "new occupation" and "changing occupation" are frequently used interchangeably, vocational educators need to be aware of the difference, even if subtle, so as to plan educational programs responsive to labor market needs. A **new occupation** is one that has come into existence in a particular geographic area in the last 10 years, has employment levels large enough to measure, and requires tasks, skills, and duties not included in any currently existing occupation. On the other hand, a **changing occupation** is an existing occupation that has experienced a change in duties, skills, or tasks, significant enough to require training beyond a short demonstration, but not significant enough to reclassify into another existing occupation or to create a new occupation.

Only 1.3 million new jobs will be created in the 1990's, compared to 3 million in the 1970's. Paramount in vocational program development and curriculum refinement are "changing" rather than "new" occupations. The greatest impact on educational program planning is the effect of technology and/or social changes on traditional occupations. For example, automotive technicians must be able to use computerized diagnostic equipment to perform traditional tasks. Social changes have provided the basis for occupations such as "child advocate" and "geriatric assistant." Restructuring duties within an established occupational area frequently creates new occupations—for example, "paralegal." Vocational educators must be aware of changing occupations and be prepared to make accommodations in their curriculum responsive to labor market needs.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The implications of these **demographic**, economic, and technological **trends** are significant for vocational education. Vocational education programs can assist in lowering unemployment rates by training young people and older adults and by retraining the unemployed for skilled, service, and technical occupations. If national policy requires an increase in labor productivity, vocational education can assist in producing the desired increase.

No worker has any real assurance now that mastery of an occupation, when obtained, will last his/her lifetime. Although jobs may change, a worker who has mastered the skills of a trade or an occupation and who has kept abreast of new techniques and developments can reasonably expect to continue in the trade or occupation throughout his/her working life.

Pre-employment training for youth must provide a solid occupational foundation. In addition, the future employee should be aware of the continued need for self-development and self-improvement in order to be well-informed and up-to-date in the occupation. Since more and more workers will need a program of life-long learning, continuing educational opportunities will need to be provided so that workers will be able to cope with occupational change. Vocational educators must train broadly for career patterns, for clusters of occupations, and for life-long employment opportunities.

A Summary View

It seems appropriate to conclude this discussion on the development of human resources, as related to the interests of vocational and career educators, by summarizing the following challenges and opportunities perceived by those in positions establishing human resource policy.

1. According to statistics, there were 3.3 million dual-career marriages in the United States in 1986, a skyrocketing increase from just 900,000 such couples in 1981. Women will continue to enter and re-enter the labor force in increasing numbers, especially as fewer young people enter the labor market. Women will be able to participate more fully in the economy if broader employment opportunities, retraining opportunities, part-time employment, child day-care centers, and flexible work schedules are available to them.

2. Although the total number of children born in the United States has risen since 1977, the birth rate of minority groups is significantly higher than for the general population. By 1995, minorities will be the fastest growing group in the new labor force. Educators will need to help these individuals acquire the job skills and work attitudes needed for successful careers.

3. Aggressive actions must be taken to reduce the unemployment rate of disadvantaged groups, particularly those individuals who possess minimum skills, low income, and limited job experience. The unemployment rate of black adults has been double the national average for white adults in the past few decades.

4. Education, vocational education in particular, must begin to assume some degree of responsibility in creating new jobs. Schools, primarily through their vocational education programs, were previously assigned the task of preparing youth with employable skills—their mission was to supply the labor market demands. Now, vocational education is being asked to *create* jobs—to assume responsibility in job development, thereby creating jobs.

5. Although the number of young adult workers entering the labor force will decrease in the next few decades, many young people will still experience some difficulty in the transition from school to work. Schools must infuse into their curricula more education programs that use the work environment to provide experiences, thus bridging the gap between school and work. Young people who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged, who lack competence and skill, may never make an effective link to the world of work if they are not helped. Educational programs that will assist these individuals to become responsible citizens must be developed. Vocational education can assist young adults to begin satisfying and productive careers by providing these individuals with opportunities and challenges in line with their talents and energy.

6. Some researchers believe that 93 percent of the work force in 1990 and 80 percent of the work force in the year 2000 are already employed in the market place. Prospects for the permanent dislocation of many of these workers are expected to increase. Between 1979 and 1984, an estimated 11.5 million people lost their jobs through plant closings, relocations, or technological innovations. Thus, the need exists to begin to develop an "**assured jobs**" **program**. An assured jobs program would provide work, on a voluntary basis, for those who

could meet an income test—such as that required for JTPA assistance—and who had received unemployment compensation for more than 15 weeks.

7. Fewer teenagers will be joining the labor force than in the 1960's—their employment prospects can be improved substantially, but special efforts will be needed to provide opportunities for the growing numbers of black youth.
8. Occupation and industry growth trends will require continued adjustments in career decisions—currently the need to adjust cannot be readily anticipated by students and workers, educators and employers, by using the information now available. But, a certain degree of forecasting, even if based on limited data, is essential.
9. Part-time work opportunities are reaching major proportions, and more part-time work will be offered by employers who are wanting to avoid paying for employee benefits, including vacations. Students, women with children, and older workers play a key role in the labor force in this area. It is predicted that by 1995, the average work week will be 32 hours, caused by the shift towards part-time jobs, not by better working conditions.
10. The number of people age 55 and over in the labor force is projected to decline slightly. But, because so many of these individuals will be living on limited retirement incomes, they will be interested in jobs that will supplement their income, and some will even assume second careers. Vocational education will need to provide retraining programs to equip these older persons with the skills needed to re-enter the labor force.

All educators who make a contribution to occupational and career development education must continue existing occupational programs and must innovate new approaches that will assist in meeting these human resource challenges and opportunities. Cooperative occupational education levels are one approach to this development of human resources.

Questions and Activities

1. Study the most recent issue of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and the appropriate issues of the *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* to gather information on five occupations for which your service specialty trains. Write a five-page paper summarizing significant information on changes in these occupations.
2. Secure a copy of any human resource report that shows occupational trends and oppor-

tunities state-wide. Evaluate the material for completeness. Which, if any, of the material could be used directly with students in occupational information programs?

3. Visit your local city or county office of the state employment service. Determine what sources of human resource data are available to schools.
4. A professor of philosophy of education who looked closely at vocational education charged, in effect, that vocational educators had become slaves to the business–industrial establishment, producing only what it wanted. Do you think there is any truth to this charge? Explain your answer.
5. Do you believe information regarding labor force age changes is important to consider when vocational education programs are being planned? Why or why not?
6. Discuss at least two factors in addition to labor market demands that affect the career choices students make.
7. Assume you are the director of vocational education for a large urban school district (grades K–12). You have been asked to report to the school's board of education your perceptions about "what vocational cooperative and work experience education should be like in this school district during the next 10 years." Write your report. It should be no longer than four pages.
8. You have been asked by the school's career counselor to draft a booklet that would be distributed to students about the importance of having a job. Using the information contained in this chapter, prepare an outline for the proposed booklet.
9. A parent has asked you, the cooperative coordinator, to meet with the school's task force responsible for attempting to address the concerns of students and parents regarding employment opportunities for high school graduates of vocational education programs. What kind of information would you provide the task force?
10. Explain why you believe it is important for vocational education programs to help students develop the three major occupational competencies.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

3

Public Policy Goals and Institutional Roles

Idea exchanges at public meetings are reflected through legislation and public policy.

KEY CONCEPT: *The institution's role in vocational education must reflect public policy; and the primary responsibility of vocational education is to meet public needs.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Trace the development of public policy expressed through federal vocational legislation.
- Explain the importance of public policy in the planning, organization, and administration of local vocational education programs.
- Identify and describe the key concepts of the career education thrust.
- Define the term "special needs populations" and then describe each of the major segments of the population typically included as special needs groups.
- Explain the reasons for the adult training and development movement in vocational education.

KEY TERMS

Area Redevelopment Act
Area vocational school/center
bilingual education
Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984
Career Education Act
Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973
disadvantaged
Education for All Handicapped Children Act
George-Barden Act
George-Deen Act
handicapped
Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)
mainstreaming
Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962
Morrill Act
National Defense Education Act
1978 Adult Education Amendments
private industry council (PIC)
service delivery areas (SDA's)
sex equity
Smith-Hughes Act
special needs populations
state councils
state plans
vocational education
Vocational Education Act of 1963
Vocational Education Amendments of 1968
Vocational Education Act of 1976
Vocational Rehabilitation Act

Vocational education was created in response to a social need for a trained labor force and as a function and a responsibility of public education. Vocational education has been, and must continue to be, even more responsive to the social, technological, and economic changes in our contemporary society. As our society changes, vocational education must adjust accordingly. But, throughout these adjustments, its concern must be directed primarily to the needs of the people—it must be people-oriented.

Vocational education is rooted in our society based on a free enterprise economy. In this system the demand for goods and services creates the jobs that people hold. From their jobs they gain the earning power to buy the goods and services that they individually require. Vocational education must serve at least two needs in a changing labor market:

1. Develop individuals' skills so as to enhance their employability not only after they leave school but also throughout their lives.
2. Provide opportunities for individuals to improve their employment status and earnings and to help them adapt to a changing economic environment.[1]

In our society the name of the game is change. Human resource needs have in some vocational areas changed radically since (1) the advent of the electronic computer—in particular, (2) the influx of knowledgeable, professionally trained managers into administration, and (3) the utilization of new processes brought by technology. Products and services must be produced, sold, and distributed. These in turn, make necessary the adaptation and re-adaptation of workers, supervisors, and managers to new tools, new appliances, new operations, and new methods. This adaptation can be made only as new skills and new technical knowledge can be transmitted to great numbers of producers and distributors in a wide variety of occupations, scattered over large geographic areas. Haphazard methods of "pick-up" training have proven inadequate in a modern industrial society. Individuals move to other areas. They react to changes in employment opportunities. They leave the labor market; then later, they re-enter it with outdated skills. All these point up the need for occupational preparation and at times retraining. Public policy and legislation recognize that an organized system of vocational education results in utilizing human effort more effectively, in conserving natural resources and energy, and in increasing the wealth of the nation.

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[1] *Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs Authorized Under the Vocational Education Act of 1963, Public Law 88-210, As Amended.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968.

Legislation and Social Strategy

Public policy, as expressed in legislation, is one of the basic considerations in the strategy of state and local decision-making. Most secondary and post-secondary districts, including private schools, engage in program planning, which, while controlled locally, must be sensitive to public policy as expressed through federal and state legislation. This is particularly true with programs that provide for reimbursements to local districts for approved expenditures. There is in public policy the promise of financial reward for approved programs; there is also the approbation for offering what is considered by those who made the inputs to legislation to be sound and needed educational practice.

THE LOCAL ADMINISTRATORS AND PUBLIC POLICY

Those who plan, organize, and administer a program involving the work environment as part of the instructional plan need to understand legislation and public policy. First, the program, if it is to be reimbursed with state and/or federal funds, must carry out the intent of the law. Second, public policy often shifts and provides for new and innovative approaches; the local administrator will want to put these in perspective to the on-going programs. And, most importantly, the person who contacts the public—advisory committees, employers, and taxpayers—is often asked about the way in which the educational program is connected with state and federal funding. The director or coordinator must, and school board members as well as the faculty should, interpret legislation and public policy for the school's administrators.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF FEDERAL SPENDING FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Authorities responsible for the allocation of tax monies must be convinced that local and state appropriations for vocational education will be an efficient and effective way of expending tax dollars. Therefore, it is imperative that teacher-coordinators understand existing vocational legislation and the developments leading to passage of legislation.

Federal legislation has stimulated the spending of state and local funds for vocational education. Most states allocate monies for vocational education far in excess of what comes from the federal government. Local contributions for vocational education are important to match federal and state monies.

Institutional Development Related To Legislative Intent

The establishment of a public school vocational education system at the beginning of the twentieth century occurred as the result of the unprecedented expansion of industry, business, and agriculture between 1860 and 1910. The population increased from 31,433,321 in 1860 to 91,972,266 in 1910. Approximately 27,000,000 immigrants entered the United States during this time, and manufacturing establishments multiplied the number of wage earners on their payrolls seven times.[2] Preparation of these workers for useful employment necessitated a sound system of vocational education.

The first federal aid to develop institutions in vocational education was provided in 1862 by the **Morrill Act**, through which public lands could be used for the support of college-level education. Thus, land-grant colleges and universities sprang up.

Free public secondary education as we know it today did not exist as public policy until 1875. For several decades the secondary schools did not regard offering vocational education as a part of their role in meeting the demands of society. These conditions prompted the government to encourage industry to bring in great numbers of immigrants—laborers and skilled mechanics. The training schools and guild apprenticeships of Europe were the vocational education base for the United States. By 1906, the shortage of skilled industrial workers had become so critical that the progressive leaders of U.S. economic, political, and social life sought a solution to the problem. Public interest in the problem of providing adequate vocational industrial education was aroused in 1906 by the famous Douglas Report of Massachusetts.[3] This was the beginning of the movement that brought about the passage of the **Smith-Hughes Act** in 1917, permanently authorizing a federally promoted and supported national program of vocational education. The concept of federal sharing of state and local school costs was established.

The National Society for Vocational Education defined "vocational schools" as follows:

> Vocational schools include all agricultural, industrial, commercial, and household arts schools when their main purpose is to fit individuals for useful occupations and when they deal with pupils above 14 years of age and below college grade.[4]

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[2] Layton S. Hawkins, Charles A. Prosser, and John C. Wright, *Development of Vocational Education* Chicago: American Technical Society, 1941, p. 63.

[3] A report of a study group appointed by the governor of Massachusetts, which revealed at that time the inadequacy of manual training to meet the needs of trained workers in industry.

[4] Hawkins, *et al.*, p. 68.

THE CHANGING K–12 ORGANIZATION

The institutional structure has changed markedly in recent years, with an expanding range of types and sizes of institutions and government agencies sponsoring occupational and career development opportunities. What is remarkable is the pluralistic nature of this institutional arrangement, with states and local communities deciding the arrangement best suited to their needs as they perceive them. The opportunity to offer a greater range of vocational education from entry training to semi-professional training, daytime and nighttime, part time and full time, and to supplement this with exploratory experiences is enhanced by several developments.

At the K–12 level, the following developments have occurred. These are: (1) the middle school (usually 6–8), which has emerged as a school suited to the needs of an age group; (2) the consolidation of districts and urbanization of population, which has resulted in larger districts and larger high schools capable of more comprehensive programs; (3) innovations in modular and extended school-year scheduling; and (4) the shared-time and educational park concepts, wherein adjacent districts (or several schools within a district) combine to offer specialized vocational education programs none could provide alone and provide alternative schools for students who are unable to adjust to the more traditional high school. There is also recognition of life-long education and of the need to serve those whom the high school has not served well, such as those who are physically and/or mentally handicapped and/or economically and/or academically disadvantaged.

Area vocational school.—The **Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984** (Public Law 98-524) defines the "**area vocational school**" as:

> (A) A specialized high school used exclusively or principally for the provision of vocational education to individuals who are available for study in preparation for entering the labor market;
>
> (B) The department of a high school exclusively or principally used for providing vocational education is no less than five different occupational fields to individuals who are available for study in preparation for entering the labor market;
>
> (C) A technical institute or vocational school used exclusively or principally for the provision of vocational education to individuals who have completed or left high school and who are available for study in preparation for entering the labor market.
>
> (D) The department or division of a junior college or community college or university operating under the policies of the State board and which provides vocational education in no less than five dif-

> ferent occupational fields leading to a baccalaureate degree, if, in the case of a school, department, or division described in subparagraph (C) or this subparagraph, it admits as regular students both individuals who have completed high school and individuals who have left high school.[5]

Community–junior colleges.—Most states have established community–junior colleges (13th and 14th years). These colleges usually offer the associate degree and employment-bound (terminal) programs. Associate degree programs concentrate on semi-professional, technical, and mid-management preparation for employment, in areas such as agribusiness; electronics; engineering (junior); secretarial administration; information processing, including both data and word; and marketing. Less than degree certificate programs (usually six months to one year) may be offered in occupational training programs. Some states have established separate area vocational schools (technical institutes) for vocational training in grades 13 and 14, to complement the community–junior college system. The community–junior colleges are usually within commuting distance of potential students and provide low-cost post-secondary educational opportunities. The increased demand for large numbers of technically trained men and women has resulted in the expansion of vocational education in the area vocational schools and in the community–junior colleges. Community–junior colleges through outreach programs and adult classes are providing vocational education to many people who were previously neglected.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Business and industry often provide task training in organized programs of instruction for their employees. Apprenticeship training programs are joint efforts involving federal and state governments, unions, and management. Professional and trade associations through conferences, seminars, and workshops help their members upgrade skills and gain knowledge of advancements in the profession. Chapter 8 discusses in some depth adult industrial training and cooperative education.

PROGRAMS FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962 authorized funds for training and retraining of unemployed and underemployed adults. This act was a milestone in providing training for those who were economically disadvantaged and who were not being served in regular vocational programs. Eligible trainees and potential job openings were identified by the state employment service. State vocational education departments contracted for the courses and experiences that matched the identified needs. If training was not available through public education agencies, contracts could be established with private institutions or agencies. Regional MDTA skills centers were established for daytime and evening training. A cooperative human resource planning system, which attempted to bring together state and regional planning efforts of all agencies involved in human resource and anti-poverty programs, was established.

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[5] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, House of Representatives Conference Report 98-1129, Ninety-eighth Congress, Second Session, October 2, 1984, pp. 51–52.

Beginning in 1970, under the leadership of Sidney P. Marland, Jr., then the U.S. Commissioner of Education, career education became an important concept in the schools. Early efforts in career education were largely supported with vocational education dollars. In 1978, the **Career Education Act** was enacted by Congress. According to the comprehensive career development concept, the individual is viewed as progressing through various planned experiences, a series of dimensions that total a complete cycle (see Figure 3-1). These dimensions, to which work environment–based learning plans can relate, are:

1. *Career awareness.*—Students study careers represented in the home, in school, and in the community, as well as characteristics of occupations—duties and responsibilities of occupations; educational and training requirements; advantages and disadvantages of occupations;

CAREER EDUCATION ELEMENTS

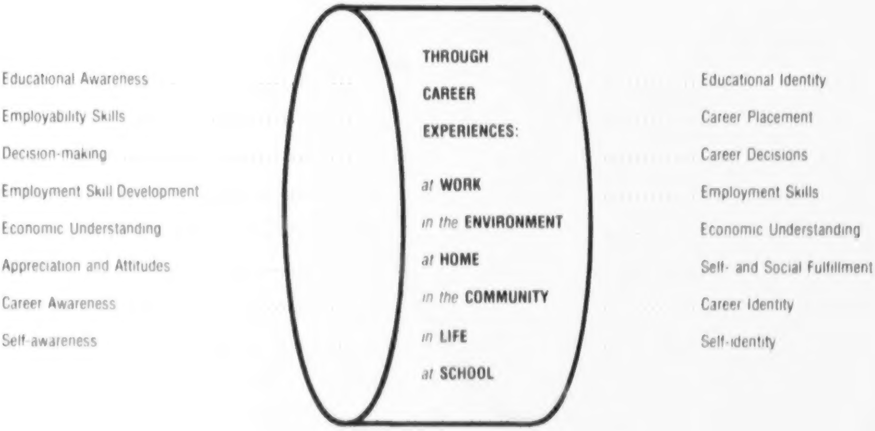
Educational Awareness
Employability Skills
Decision-making
Employment Skill Development
Economic Understanding
Appreciation and Attitudes
Career Awareness
Self-awareness
THROUGH
CAREER
EXPERIENCES:
at WORK
in the ENVIRONMENT
at HOME
in the COMMUNITY
in LIFE
at SCHOOL
Educational Identity
Career Placement
Career Decisions
Employment Skills
Economic Understanding
Self- and Social Fulfillment
Career Identity
Self-identity

FIG. 3-1. Development of the whole person.

employment sources; employment outlook; data, people, and things; involvements; clusters of occupations and commonalities of characteristics and requirements; methods of clustering; and career ladders and lattices.

2. ***Self-awareness.***—Students create realistic self-images and self-awareness through the study of topics such as occupational interest, aptitude, attitude, and ability inventories; employer expectations; values and career choice; relation of self-information to education and training requirements of occupations and to job advancement avenues; work experience; and knowledge of individual differences and their importance in career planning.
3. ***Decision-making.***—Students examine bases for decision-making; methods of decision-making; activities for achieving decision-making skills; resources needed for the study of occupations; occupational hazards; occupations selected for in-depth study; education and training alternatives; career development processes and goals; and interviewing and reporting.
4. ***Appreciations, attitudes, and self-fulfillment.***—Students investigate the dignity of work; the interrelationships of the world of work and human needs; the rewards of work; and the hazards of work.
5. ***Economic understanding.***—Students consider the technological factors associated with economic development, along with production, distribution, services, and consumption in relation to jobs and economic structure; reasonable employment and wages; money management; and lifestyles associated with careers.
6. ***Employment skill development.***—Students avail themselves of work experience; simulated learning experiences; occupational adjustment; correlation of in-school education experiences with work experience; apprenticeship programs, cooperative education, industrial training and secondary occupational programs; and identification with machines, tools, materials, and processes.
7. ***Educational awareness.***—Students study the financing of education and training; the occupational and educational training opportunities and admission requirements; the relationship of occupational employment requirements to education and training programs; and study habits and skills.
8. ***Employability skills.***—Students examine legal and certification requirements for careers; job applications and interviews; preemployment tests; employment agencies and sources; professional, union, industrial, and service organizations; motivation factors; work habits and personality factors related to career success; hobbies and

avocations related to careers; and home and community experience related to careers (part-time jobs, volunteer services, sports, family involvement).

Public Policy As Expressed Through Federal Vocational Legislation

The first federal participation in promoting education for agricultural and mechanical pursuits was expressed in the Morrill Act of 1862. But, the real beginning of public school vocational education through federal policy began with the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. It and subsequent legislation are outlined briefly here as an expression of the types of ventures that public policy has promoted in public education.

SMITH-HUGHES ACT—1917

Beginning in 1917, vocational education received its first real impetus through the **Smith-Hughes Act**, which provided *in perpetuity* to the states an annual grant of approximately $7.2 million for the promotion of vocational education in agricultural, trade and industrial, and home economics education. Business, health, and marketing education were not included.

GEORGE-DEEN ACT—1936

Congress approved the **George-Deen Act** on June 8, 1936, as a continuing statute with no expiration date. Unlike the Smith-Hughes Act, it was an authorization, not a permanent act. The act had an annual authorization of $12 million for agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial education. The money was divided equally among the three services, and allotments to the states were made on the basis of farm population for agriculture, rural population for home economics, and nonfarm population for trade and industrial education.

The act was significant because marketing occupations were recognized for the first time, and an annual allotment of $1.2 million was authorized for them.

GEORGE-BARDEN ACT—1946

On August 1, 1946, Congress approved as a post–World War II measure the **George-Barden Act** (the Vocational Education Act of 1946), which authorized an appropriation of $28,850,000 annually for the further development of vocational education. This act replaced the George-Deen Act.

This act authorized $10 million for agricultural education, to be allocated among the states on the basis of farm population. Authority was given in the act for the expenditure of funds in support of two youth organizations in agriculture: the Future Farmers of America and the New Farmers of America. It authorized $8 million for home economics, the basis of allotment being the rural population of the state. It also authorized $8 million for trade and industrial education, to be allocated among the states on the basis of nonfarm population. As in the George-Deen Act, funds for marketing occupations were limited to support for part-time (cooperative) and evening courses for employed workers—no preparatory courses as in other fields were authorized.

NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT—1946

Title VIII of the **National Defense Education Act**, "Area Vocational Education Programs," authorized an appropriation of $15 million annually for four years to support programs limited to the training of highly skilled technicians in occupations recognized as necessary for the national defense. These provisions became Title III of the George-Barden Act. Allotments were made to states according to each state's proportion of the total amount allocated under the George-Barden Act for agricultural, home economics, trade and industrial, and marketing occupations.

AREA REDEVELOPMENT ACT—1962

The **Area Redevelopment Act** was an emergency bill born out of a recession. It authorized $4.5 million annually to be used for vocational education until 1965. The legislation recognized the critical need for training that arises from unemployment and underemployment in economically distressed areas and, therefore, authorized vocational education retraining programs in certain geographic areas that had been designated as redevelopment areas by the Secretary of Commerce. The act further provided that the Secretary of Labor select and refer persons for training, while the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare contract with other public and private educational institutions if the required services were not available through state and local vocational education agencies. Funds appropriated under this act went to the state for use only in designated redevelopment areas; there were no state allotments and no requirements for matching of funds for training programs.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963

Significant expansion and reorientation of vocational education were the goals of the **Vocational Education Act of 1963** (Public Law 88-210). The purposes of the act were varied. However, the major ones were to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs of vocational education and to provide part-time employment for youth who needed the earnings from such employment to continue their schooling on a full-time basis. The intent of the act was to insure that persons of all ages in all communities would have ready access to vocational training or retraining of high quality, suited to their personal needs, interests, and abilities. For the first time, vocational education was mandated to meet the needs of individual students and not just to meet the employment needs of industry.

The law stipulated that the funds be used in accordance with approved state plans for the following:

> (1) Vocational education for persons attending high school;
>
> (2) Vocational education for persons who have completed or left high school and who are available for full-time study in preparation for entering the labor market;
>
> (3) Vocational education for persons (other than persons who are receiving training allowances under the Manpower Development and Training Act), who have already entered the labor market and who need training or retraining to achieve stability or advancement in employment;
>
> (4) Vocational education for persons who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program;
>
> (5) Construction of area vocational education school facilities;
>
> (6) Ancillary services and activities to assure quality in all vocational education programs, such as teacher training and supervision, program evaluation, special demonstration and experimental programs, development of instructional materials, and State administration and leadership, including periodic evaluation of State and local vocational education programs and services in light of information regarding current and projected manpower needs and job opportunities.[6]

It is significant that this legislation did *not* stipulate funds for the various vocational education services; instead, it stipulated them for particular types and ages of persons.

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[6] Excerpts taken from the *Congressional Record*, proceedings and debates of the Eighty-eighth Congress, First Session, Vol. 109, No. 205, December 13, 1963.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AMENDEMENTS OF 1968

The purpose of Title I of the **Vocational Education Amendments of 1968** (Public Law 90-576) was to authorize federal grants to states to assist them in maintaining, extending, and improving existing programs of vocational education and to provide part-time employment for youth who needed the earnings from such employment to continue their vocational training.

The act was divided into several parts, each related to a specific purpose. In general, the act's purposes were to:

(1) Provide the opportunity for vocational preparation in the high school;

(2) Provide vocational preparation for persons who have completed or left high school and who are available for study in preparation for entering the labor market;

(3) Provide vocational education for persons who have academic, socio-economic or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program;

(4) Provide vocational education for handicapped persons who because of their handicapping condition cannot succeed in the regular vocational education program without special educational assistance or who require a modified vocational education program;

(5) Support construction of area vocational education school facilities; and,

(6) Provide vocational guidance counseling to aid persons in the selection of, and preparation for, employment in all vocational areas.[7]

To meet the special needs for new careers and occupations, the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 provided financial support for research and training and for experimental demonstration programs. In addition, they provided support for exemplary programs and projects, residential vocational education, consumer and homemaking education, cooperative vocational education programs, and work-study programs for vocational education students.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1976

It appears that in instituting the **Vocational Education Act of 1976** (Public Law 94-482), Congress was not satisfied with what vocational education had done in the past in preparing individuals for the labor market. The Vocational Education Act of 1976 mandated vocational education to reflect the needs of the labor market more accurately and, in some cases, to become a partner with business, industry, and labor in attempting to change the work place to be more responsive to the needs of people. Vocational education was asked to assume a pro-active rather than a re-active role. The primary goals of the Vocational Education Act of 1976 were to help "states in improving planning in the use of all resources available to them for vocational education and manpower training by involving a wide range of agencies and individuals concerned with education and training within the state in the development of the vocational education plans."[8]

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[7] Excerpts from Grant Venn, *Vocational Education Amendments of 1968*, June 1969, pp. 1-12.

The major thrusts of the Vocational Education Act of 1976 were:

> (1) to extend, improve, and, where necessary, maintain existing programs of vocational education;
>
> (2) to develop new programs of vocational education;
>
> (3) to develop and carry out such programs of vocational education within each State so as to overcome sex discrimination and sex stereotyping in vocational education programs (including programs of homemaking), and thereby furnish equal educational opportunities in vocational education to persons of both sexes; and
>
> (4) to provide part-time employment for youths who need the earnings from such employment to continue their vocational training on a full-time basis,
>
> (5) so that persons of all ages in all communities of the State, those in high school, those who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, those who have already entered the labor market, but need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, those with special educational handicaps, and those in postsecondary schools, will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual or anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interests, and ability to benefit from such training.[9]

The 1976 act identified several major areas of concern and established operational guidelines and rules and regulations for these areas. The primary concerns were: (1) program planning, including articulation with other agencies; (2) collection and dissemination of data about vocational education programs; (3) program evaluation, including accountability concerns, sex bias and sex stereotyping as they pertained to various program functions and components; (4) special populations, including those individuals who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged, physically and/or mentally handicapped, unemployed, and/or limited–English-speaking; and (5) program improvement strategies.

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[8] *Vocational Education Act of 1976*. Title II of Public Law 94-482, Education Amendments of 1976, Part A— "State Vocational Education Programs," Sec. 101.

[9] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Conference Report, pp. 3 and 4.

CARL D. PERKINS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1984

The **Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984**, effective beginning with fiscal year 1985 and expiring on September 30, 1989, amended the Vocational Education Act of 1963, and replaced the amendments of 1968 and 1976. The act changed the emphasis of federal funding in vocational education from primarily expansion to program improvement and at-risk populations.

(1) Assist the States to expand, improve, modernize, and develop quality vocational education programs in order to meet the needs of the Nation's existing and future work force for marketable skills and to improve productivity and promote economic growth;

(2) Assure that individuals who are inadequately served under vocational education programs are assured access to quality vocational education programs, especially individuals who are disadvantaged, who are handicapped, men and women who are entering nontraditional occupations, adults who are in need of training and retraining, individuals who are single parents or homemakers, individuals with limited English proficiency, and individuals who are incarcerated in correctional institutions;

(3) Promote greater cooperation between public agencies and the private sector in preparing individuals for employment, in promoting the quality of vocational education in the States, and in making the vocational system more responsive to the labor market in the States;

(4) Improve the academic foundations of vocational students and to aid in the application of newer technologies (including the use of computers) in terms of employment or occupational goals;

(5) Provide vocational education services to train, retrain, and upgrade employed and unemployed workers in new skills for which there is a demand in that State or employment market;

(6) Assist the most economically depressed areas of a State to raise employment and occupational competencies of its citizens;

(7) Assist the State to utilize a full range of supportive services, special programs, and guidance counseling and placement to achieve the basic purposes of this Act;

(8) Improve the effectiveness of consumer and homemaking education and to reduce the limiting effects of sex-role stereotyping on occupations, job skills, levels of competency, and careers; and

(9) Authorize national programs designed to meet designated vocational education needs and to strengthen the vocational education research process.[10]

STATE PLANS UNDER THIS NEW LEGISLATION

Any state desiring to receive funds from its allotment of funds for any fiscal year under the Perkins legislation must submit to the U.S. Secretary of Education a **state plan** for a three-year period for its plan and a two-year period thereafter, together with such annual revisions as the state board determines to be necessary.[11]

To meet the needs identified in the state plan, each state must use the portion of its allotment available for vocational education opportunities in any fiscal year to provide vocational education services and activities designed to meet the special needs of and to enhance the participation of:

(1) Handicapped individuals;

(2) Disadvantaged individuals;

(3) Adults who are in need of training and retraining;

(4) Individuals who are single parents or homemakers; and

(5) Individuals who participate in programs designed to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping in vocational education;

(6) Criminal offenders who are serving in a correctional institution.[12]

In the Perkins legislation, the term "vocational education" means organized educational programs that are directly related to the preparation of individuals in paid or unpaid employment in fields such as agriculture, business occupations, home economics, health occupations, marketing education, technical and emerging occupations, modern industrial and agricultural arts, and trade and industrial occupations, or for additional preparation for a career in such fields, and in other occupations, requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree, and vocational student organization activities as an integral part of the program.

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[10] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[11] It is suggested that a current copy of your state plan be obtained to see how your state plans to meet the intent of the Perkins legislation.

[12] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Conference Report, p. 17.

STATE COUNCILS AS A PART OF PUBLIC POLICY

State councils, frequently called state advisory councils, have been part of the public policy process since their inception in 1968 under the Vocational Education Amendments. For over 20 years, state councils have been advising state boards of vocational education on policies that would strengthen the states' vocational education programs. Although these activities have been continued under the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, the law broadens their clientele, increases their responsibilities for evaluation, including the requirement that each council must assess the vocational education delivery systems covered under the act and the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and recommend ways to improve the "adequacy and effectiveness of the coordination" between vocational education and JTPA.

The state councils have three policy objectives. These are:

(1) To achieve considerable public involvement in shaping vocational education policy;

(2) To provide independent assessments of vocational programs and activities;

(3) To establish mechanisms that will improve vocational education policies and the policy making process.[13]

AMENDMENTS TO THE CARL D. PERKINS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1984

It wasn't long after the enactment of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act that an important amendment was required. In 1986, an amendment to the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 was signed into law to correct the inequities created by the Gramm-Rudman-Hollings Act. The Gramm-Rudman-Hollings Act imposed a 4.3 percent across-the-board cut in vocational education funds in March of 1986. Because the Carl D. Perkins Voctional Education Act specifies that each state must receive at least ½ of 1 percent of the basic vocational education grant and that every additional funding for the basic grant above the 1984 level must be used to bring smaller states up to the minimum funding level, the Department of Education would have been forced to use 1986 consumer and homemaking funds to meet the requirements of the small state minimum in the basic grant.

Without the amendment, smaller states would have been given large increases of consumer and homemaking funds, while larger states would have had deep cuts in funds. The amendment corrected these inequities by preventing consumer and homemaking funds from being used to meet the provisions of the small state minimum in the basic grant.

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[13] John W. Mercer and E. Michael Latta, "New Roles for State Councils," *Vocational Education Journal*, Vol. 62, No. 1, January–February 1987, pp. 37–38.

Legislation Reflecting Special Concerns

In the past decade several laws that have had a major impact on vocational education and have extended its scope have been enacted.

FEDERAL REVENUE ACT OF 1978

The costs of unemployment to society are high. There are the lost goods and services that those who are unemployed would have produced had they been working. The unemployment-related increases in crime, health problems, and family stress carry heavy costs for those affected and to the larger society. To encourage employers to provide employment and training to targeted populations who possess little if any job skills was the intent of the Federal Revenue Act of 1978.

The program provides dollar credits to employers who hire from seven specified groups. Included among the seven targeted groups are youth, ages 18 to 24, from low-income families; students, ages 16 to 18, in approved cooperative education programs; persons who are handicapped, in vocational rehabilitation programs; and qualified summer youth employees.

The credit to reduce federal income tax is the key provision of the Federal Revenue Act of 1978. The tax credit is relatively easy to claim. In essence, an eligible worker applying for a job under the program is given a voucher by the agency (in case of the cooperative education student, the agency would be the school) that certifies that the job seeker is a member of one of the targeted groups. If the employer decided to hire the individual, the voucher is endorsed by the employer and returned to the state employment service, which issues a tax credit certificate. If the employee was hired before January 1, 1986, the tax credit is equal to 50 percent of the first year's wages up to $6,000 (*i.e.*, $3,000) and 25 percent (*i.e.*, $1,500) in the second year. In the case of a qualified summer youth employee, the employer's credit is limited to 85 percent of the first $3,000 of wages paid to that employee for work done in any 90-day period between May 1 and September 15 of the same calendar year.

If the employee was hired after December 31, 1985, and before January 1, 1989, there are new rules that will or will not allow an employer the tax credit. The tax credit is now limited to 40 percent of the qualified first-year wages. There is no credit for any second-year wages. In addition, the tax credit is only allowable if the eligible employee works for more than 90 days or 120 hours (14 days or 20 hours in the case of a qualified summer youth). Employers cannot use the tax credit to reduce their tax liability below zero. Any unused tax credit can be carried back 3 tax years or forward 15 tax years.

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT (CETA) OF 1973

In response to the high unemployment level, the increasing number of welfare recipients, the increasing number of economically disadvantaged rural and urban communities with hard core unemployed, the significantly large number of youth unable to find part-time or full-time employment, and the increasing number of minority group members who are unskilled and unemployed, Congress in 1973 enacted the **Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA)**. This legislation was intended to continue the goals of the previous MDTA legislation, plus expand the previous services MDTA made available. In addition, the funding patterns and coordination requirements among other federal and state agencies providing human resource training were more comprehensive than in the MDTA.

One of the unique features of CETA was its funding pattern. The act established the delivery concept of a prime sponsor. The occupational education, training, and other employment services programs were conducted in conjunction with local units of government known as CETA prime sponsors. Prime sponsors provided a variety of employment and training services by contracting with approved public and private education agencies.

When CETA became law in 1973, the concept of revenue sharing was popular—the federal government would give to both the states and their localities the tax revenues collected from their citizens and let those units of government make the essential decisions concerning the use of public funds. This view was popular among groups who were concerned about "big government" and strongly centralized federal control and among state and local politicians. Local planning was a major rationale for the CETA revenue sharing philosophy.

In October 1978, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Amendments of 1978 were signed into law. These CETA amendments authorized the extension of the activities and programs of the 1973 law and included provisions to improve the delivery, accountability, and coordination of the various employment and training programs and services. In addition, the 1978 amendments required program coordination and linkages with other human resource programs, including vocational education. CETA was replaced by JTPA (Job Training Partnership Act) in 1982.

JOB TRAINING PARTNERSHIP ACT OF 1982 (JTPA)

Known as the **Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)**, the new law (Public Law 97-300) replaced CETA, which expired September 30, 1982. The statute enlarged the role of state governments and private industry in federal job training programs, imposed performance standards, limited support services, and created a new program of retraining for displaced workers. Playing a leading role in implementing the statute is the state governor, who designates local service delivery areas (SDA's), passes judgment on the plans drawn up for the local training programs, and draws up a plan for coordinating job training programs with other human services in the state.

Each state is required to have a state job training coordinating council (SJTCC), appointed by the governor. The council recommends **service delivery areas (SDA's)**. The governor sets up SDA's, which may be protested by local governments, business organizations, and others. A unit of local government with a population of 200,000 or more, any consortium of contiguous local governments with an aggregate population of 200,000 or more that serves a substantial part of the labor market area, and any rural concentrated employment program (CEP) that served as a prime sponsor under CETA may request to be SDA's.

Each SDA must have a **private industry council (PIC)**. The majority of a PIC's membership must be private sector representatives, The other PIC members are to be representatives of eductional agencies, organized labor, and economic development agencies. The PIC chairperson is to be selected by the council from among the private sector membership. The Job Training Partnership Act gives PIC's broad powers. The job training plan submitted to the governor for the SDA must be approved by the appropriate elected local government official and by PIC.

Each PIC is responsible for establishing goals for accomplishing the performance standards. The standards include elements such as placement data of clients in unsubsidized employment, job retention figures, and reductions in welfare payments. Although JTPA does not mandate separate youth and adult programs, except with regard to the summer youth employment and training program, it does require that a separate set of standards be established for youth programs. These standards will include variables such as job competencies and completion of secondary or post-secondary programs. JTPA drops all restrictions on duration of enrollment. Performance standards are expected to make length of enrollment, by itself, an irrelevant factor.

The act identifies a long list of activities for which funds may be used, including job counseling and job search assistance, remedial education in the basics, work experience and on-the-job training, vocational exploration, bilingual education, job development, customized industry training, supportive services including payments to persons who are economically disadvantaged (those receiving public assistance or with a family income below the poverty level), and pre-employment skills training for 14- and 15-year-old youths.

Participation in a local training program is limited to those who are economically disadvantaged, except for 10 percent of the participants who can be non-economically disadvantaged if they have encountered barriers to employment, such as displaced homemakers.

The payment of allowances and stipends is not mandated but is allowed at the option of local program operators. Local programs are restricted, however, spending no more than 15 percent of their funds for all supportive services, including allowances and stipends.

The act provides that 8 percent of each state's job training funds be set aside for cooperative projects with schools and colleges. The set-aside goes to the state agency responsible for education and training and is to be used for education programs developed by that agency. State and local education agencies, however, have to match the federal funds they receive.

As compared to CETA policies, JTPA policies clearly require that vocational education be involved in the job training activities. JTPA mandates that education agencies and institutions be given ". . . the opportunity to provide educational services unless it can be demonstrated that alternative agencies or organizations would be more effective or would have greater potential to enhance the continued occupational and career growth of youth and adults." The statute further states that ". . . funds [are] available in the area from federal, state or local sources."

JTPA requires that 8 percent of the funds a state receives for youth and adult training be set aside for state education coordination grants. The state education agency and the local education agency (LEA) must provide a 50/50 match for at least 80 percent of the monies received.

CREATION OF A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

On October 17, 1979, President Carter fulfilled a campaign promise by signing the bill creating a separate cabinet-level Department of Education. The presidential appointments include the secretary, the under secretary, and the assistant secretaries for elementary and secondary education, postsecondary education, vocational and adult education, special education and rehabilitation services, educational research and improvement, civil rights, and overseas dependents. (See Figure 3-2.) During his campaigning in 1980, Ronald Reagan spoke about the elimination of the Department of Education. On many occasions since his election, discussions have focused on abolishing

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

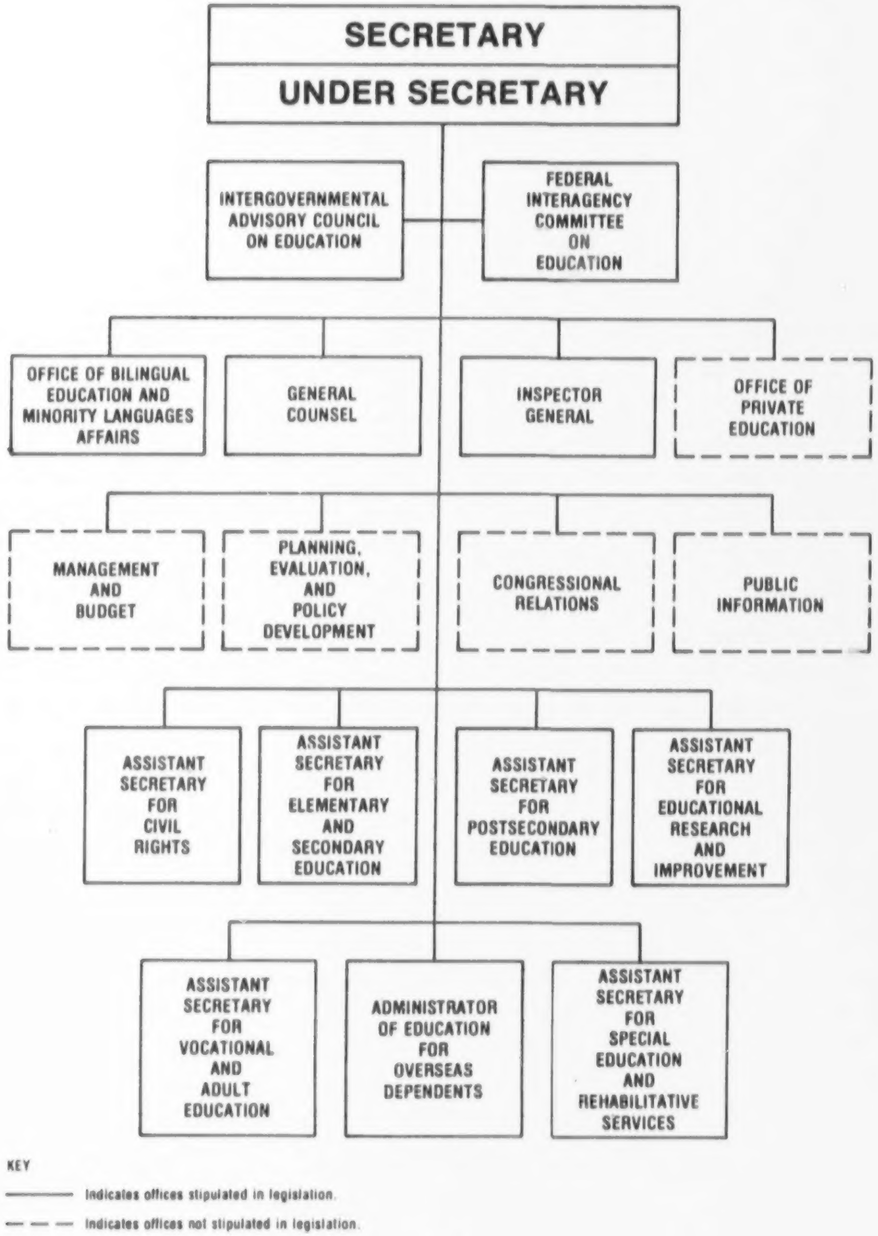
SECRETARY
UNDER SECRETARY
INTERGOVERNMENTAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
FEDERAL INTERAGENCY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION
OFFICE OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND MINORITY LANGUAGES AFFAIRS
GENERAL COUNSEL
INSPECTOR GENERAL
OFFICE OF PRIVATE EDUCATION
MANAGEMENT AND BUDGET
PLANNING, EVALUATION, AND POLICY DEVELOPMENT
CONGRESSIONAL RELATIONS
PUBLIC INFORMATION
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR CIVIL RIGHTS
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND IMPROVEMENT
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR VOCATIONAL AND ADULT EDUCATION
ADMINISTRATOR OF EDUCATION FOR OVERSEAS DEPENDENTS
ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES
KEY
Indicates offices stipulated in legislation.
Indicates offices not stipulated in legislation.

FIG. 3-2

the Department of Education. Some individuals believe the issue is now moot, but the federal role in providing leadership in vocational education has been reduced and changed. For example, from 1982 to 1987, the Department of Education's staff was reduced by about 40 percent.

Legislation for Special Needs Populations

In the 1960's and 1970's, much of the legislation passed by Congress dealt with providing equal education for "all." Never before had there been such an emphasis on providing vocational education for all students, no matter what their race, sex, age, national origin, language, or economic level. Laws enacted during this period include the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1973, the Comprehensive Employment Training Act of 1973, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, and the Vocational Education Act of 1976, which mandated changes designed to enable vocational education to serve better "all" people, including the special needs populations.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR INDIVIDUALS WHO ARE HANDICAPPED

In the past two decades, vocational education has become more concerned with the role of serving persons with handicaps and has made progress in adapting and refining programs to prepare these "students at risk" vocationally. It is estimated that there are more than 8 million children who are **handicapped** in the United States. Statistics show that in 1982–83, 40 percent of the total number of secondary students with handicaps were enrolled in vocational education, as compared to only 20 percent being so enrolled in the 1976–77 school year.

Various laws, including the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the 1968 Amendments, have charged vocational education with the responsibility for helping students who are handicapped to succeed in vocational programs. New federal and state laws have substantially altered how vocational education must serve persons with handicaps. As a result of legislation such as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, vocational education must assess the vocational skills of students who are handicapped, make vocational education available as part of the total education plan, and provide vocational education and counseling in a nondiscriminatory manner to persons with handicaps.

Different statutes cover different age groups of persons with handicaps. The **Education for all Handicapped Children Act** applies to students, ages 3 to 21, in public elementary and secondary schools and to students who have been placed in private schools by public agencies. Under the federal regulations, students 18 to 21 years of age were not entitled to the protections of the Act until 1980. The **Vocational Rehabilitation Act** provides two sets of protections. One is for persons who are disabled and who are attending preschool, elementary, secondary, or adult education programs. The second covers post-secondary education programs. The Vocational Education Act of 1984 defines "persons who are handicapped" as:

> . . . individuals who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or other health impaired persons, or persons with special learning disabilities, who by reason thereof require special education and related services, and who, because of their handicapping condition, cannot succeed in the regular vocational education program without special education assistance . . . [14]

There are two major provisions of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act that have major implications for teacher-coordinators of cooperative vocational education plans. They are: (1) children with handicaps should be placed in the "least restrictive environment"—this is commonly known as **mainstreaming**—and (2) an "individualized education program" (IEP) should be developed for every student who has a handicap.

Under the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, states must provide students who are handicapped with vocational education programs and services in the least restrictive environment. Because vocational educators have interpreted the legislation to mean that all students who are handicapped be mainstreamed, separate vocational education programs have been incorrectly eliminated. The thrust of the least restrictive environment concept requires that no student who is handicapped be served in a separate vocational education program unless it can be demonstrated that that student needs a restrictive learning environment. Educators need to be mindful that the least restrictive environment concept does not suggest that every student who has a handicap be mainstreamed. The student's placement must be resolved by assessing the individual's abilities and special needs. For some students, separate vocational education programs are the least restrictive environment.

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[14] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Title V, Part B—"Definitions," Sec. 521 (15).

Teacher-coordinators need to work closely with special education personnel to build vocational education programs that serve the individual needs of students with handicaps. No longer can the special needs department and the vocational education departments "exist" separately in the education of students who are handicapped.

The combined scope of the laws' provisions are very broad; most, if not all, individuals with handicaps who are attending school will be covered by the protection of at least one provision of one law. Although each law emphasizes different populations, the combined effect of the laws is to require all elementary and secondary districts and post-secondary institutions, including community–junior college districts, to provide vocational education services to individuals who are handicapped. Each of these laws expresses the basic concept of the availability of vocational education for individuals who are handicapped.

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 states: "Ten percent of the funds available . . . shall be available for handicapped individuals."

Similarly, Public Law 94-142 provides:

> Each public agency shall take steps to insure that its handicapped children have available to them the variety of educational programs and services available to non-handicapped children in the area served by the agency, including art, music, industrial arts, consumer and homemaking education, and *vocational* education. *(Emphasis added.)*

The regulations of Sec. 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, applicable to post-secondary schools, also underscore the importance of vocational education:

> No qualified handicapped student shall on the basis of handicap be excluded from participation in . . . any . . . occupational training program.[15]

The term "**special needs populations**" is generally used to describe individuals who are (1) physically and/or mentally disabled, economically and/or academically disadvantaged, and/or limited–English-speaking; (2) members of minority groups; or (3) gifted and talented. In recent years, the term "exceptional students" has become popular in describing those who have difficulty in succeeding in "regular" programs, more so than in describing talented and gifted students. Therefore, the term "**special needs populations**" usually refers to individuals who require assistance and/or programs that are modified to accommodate their special needs.

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[15] *Federal Register*, Vol. 20, Sec. 84.43 (a), January 30, 1985.

In vocational education, the term "special needs populations" is comprehensively used to include the traditional special needs groups (persons with disabilities and/or disadvantages), as well as adults in need of training and retraining, single parents and homemakers, displaced homemakers, and criminal offenders. Thus, the term describes a broad segment of people who for one reason or another are having difficulty succeeding in a regular vocational education program and who therefore require special teaching–learning techniques and supplemental and supporting services and resources. Because there is great diversity in the special needs of individuals who comprise special groups, vocational education for special needs populations must be multifaceted.

For the last 15 to 20 years, vocational educators have been urged to accept responsibility for helping individuals who need special assistance to succeed in vocational education programs. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 and that of 1976 charged vocational education with the responsibility of addressing the needs of individuals who are unable to succeed in regular vocational education programs. The 1984 Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act repeats the mandate and gives added attention to the requirements. The intention of Congress has been to provide special assistance to those persons who are physically and/or mentally disabled and/or economically and/or academically disadvantaged to the degree that they cannot succeed in regular vocational education programs.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR INDIVIDUALS WHO ARE DISADVANTAGED

At a time when serious concerns are being voiced about the staggering number of U.S. adults who are functionally illiterate, the number of U.S. workers who are structurally unemployed, the shocking increase in the number of high school students who drop out from school, the increase in the number of teenagers who are mothers, and the especially large number of youths, especially in minority groups, who are unemployed, vocational education's commitment to improve vocational programs for individuals who are **disadvantaged** has special meaning.

The 1984 Vocational Education Act describes disadvantaged individuals as being:

> Individuals (other than handicapped individuals) who have economic or academic disadvantages and who require special services and assistance in order to enable them to succeed in vocational education programs. Such terms include individuals who are members of economically disadvantaged families, migrants, individuals who have

> limited English proficiency and individuals who are dropouts from, or who are identified as potential dropouts from, secondary school.[16]

Living in a ghetto or in an economically depressed area does not classify persons as being disadvantaged according to the Vocational Education Amendments. As per the definition, disadvantaged individuals are those "individuals who have economic or academic disadvantages and who require special services and assistance" to succeed in regular vocational education programs. Being from a ghetto area may be, and likely is, at least a contributing cause to individuals being disadvantaged, but it is not an acceptable means of classifying individuals as being disadvantaged primarily by their residence.

Problems of youth.—The costs to society of unemployment and delinquency among youth are a drain on societal resources that could be used for other purposes. Studies have clearly shown that youth who get a poor start in life are likely to develop life-long patterns of unemployment and crime. A recent study completed by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, clearly re-enforces the importance of preparing students with employable skills while they are in high school. The study reports that 77 percent of those students who did not graduate from high school in 1982 were still without diplomas in 1984, that among those who dropped out of high school in 1982, only 4 percent were enrolled in vocational courses and none were enrolled in college courses in 1984, and that dropouts were far more likely than graduates to be unemployed.

Few, if any, vocational educators would disagree that schools must become more responsive to the employment needs of young people while they are in school and prepare them, upon their leaving school, to make an effective transition to the world of work. The task of preparing students, especially those who are disadvantaged and/or handicapped, with the necessary job skills and work attitudes for success in the world of work is a major concern among educators who are responsive to the needs of young people in the critical transition from school to work and family formation.

Unemployment problems.—Unemployment is everyone's problem. It is economically dangerous to the nation and creates serious burdens on everyone. The unemployed deprive society of goods and services that, had they been employed, would have added to the national output. High unemployment brings with it many related social problems and pressures, including increases in crime, health problems, and family stress, all of which imply additional costs that must be met.

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[16] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Sec. 521 (12).

Getting and holding a job for many people is an unfulfilled dream. Over 8 million Americans are out of work. Since most unemployment data do not include the unemployed who are no longer registered with state employment agencies because they are no longer eligible to receive unemployment compensation, the actual number of unemployed could be much greater than the 8 million reported. Current economic problems, including recent recessions, have unquestionably created serious unemployment problems, which probably will not disappear for many years.

The first federal legislation to promote language as an essential part of culture was Title VII, called the "Bilingual Education Act," a part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Public Law 89-10), which was enacted in 1968. It authorized funds for bilingual programs at the preschool, elementary, and secondary levels. Concerns about those students with limited English or non-English proficiency prompted Congress, through the Vocational Education Act of 1976, to give special consideration to bilingual education for the first time. The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 continues to authorize support for bilingual vocational education programs.

The 1984 act provides that individuals with limited English proficiency not only should be prepared for occupational entry but also should be given instruction in ". . . English language to ensure that participants in such training will be equipped to pursue such occupations in an English language environment."[17] Funds are also available for bilingual vocational instructor training programs and the development of instructional materials.

Concerns among vocational educators about those students with limited English on non-English proficiency have become more urgent as 544,000 legal immigrants, the largest wave of legal immigration since the turn of the century, entered the United States in 1984. The overwhelmingly European character of the nation is quickly being changed, as the largest number of new arrivals in 1984 came from Mexico (57,000, more than 10 percent of the total 544,000), the Philippines (42,000), and Vietnam (37,000). Only 14,000 of the immigrants were from the British Isles.

In addition, a substantial number of new faces arrive illegally. Estimates of the number of entering illegal immigrants vary widely. A recent study completed by the National Academy of Sciences estimated the total illegals in the United States to be no more than 2 to 4 million, while the Bureau of the Census estimates the number at between 3.5 and 6 million. These figures include anyone—from Italian students who deliberately overstay their student visas to the Haitian boat people who scramble onto U.S. soil in Florida.

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[17] *Ibid.*, Title IV, Part E — "Bilingual Vocational Training, Program Authorized," Sec. 441 (a) (1).

A recent study completed by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, clearly shows that there are many barriers that keep limited–English- or non–English-speaking students from participating in and succeeding in vocational education. Clearly, all vocational educators, including coordinators of cooperative education plans, must meet the challenge by providing the leadership necessary to assure accessibility and success in vocational education programs and plans for this special population.

Although many U.S. workers feel that opportunities for employment should be more plentiful, that the quality of work should be better, that work settings and structures should be more flexible and more in accord with new and varying lifestyles, and that workers should be more actively involved in decisions that affect their needs, "the great majority of Americans—be they young or older, affluent or poor, male or female—would prefer work to welfare."[18]

Single parents and displaced homemakers.—The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 provided the largest set-aside of vocational education monies ever for single parents and homemakers. The act is an example of federal legislation responding to economic and social changes. In less than 15 years, the number of one-parent families in the United States doubled, and about 90 percent of these one-parent families are maintained by the mothers. The number of families that were below the poverty level and were maintained by mothers was 47 percent in 1983. "Nearly 72 percent of black families and 37 percent of white families with incomes below the poverty level were maintained by women, with these women caring for 7.6 million children."[19]

Older adults.—A new "special needs population is growing in our society—the graying population—senior citizens, retirees, and oldsters. Many oldsters are victims of age-ism discrimination. Age-ism takes several forms, the most significant being: a) compulsory age for retirement, and b) difficulty in reentering the labor force after leaving a job in one's later years."[20]

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[18] Reginald E. Petty, *Trends and Issues in Vocational Education Research and Development*, Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, November 1978, p. 8.

[19] Marty R. Seaward and Donna H. Redmann, "A Landmark Statute for Women," *Vocational Education Journal*, Vol. 62, No. 2, March 1987, p. 37.

[20] Angelo C. Gilli, "Vocational Education for Retirees and Middle-Age Career Changers," *Vocational Education for Special Groups*, Sixth Yearbook, Arlington, Virginia: American Vocational Association, 1976, p. 86.

The "baby boom" generation—everyone born between 1946 and 1964—has shaken U.S. economics, politics, and culture. As a group, these individuals represent a third of the population in the United States. The middle aging of these baby boomers (the first ones turned 40 in 1986) will no doubt bring about significant cultural changes. Some experts believe these changes will be: more people will be affluent, more people will be conservative, and more people will focus on their home life.

According to the Bureau of the Census, one out of every nine people in the United States is over 65, and the population over 65 is growing twice as fast as the population as a whole. As the median age of the U.S. population rises, the economic problems of retirement are expected to be even more serious in future years. In addition to reduced incomes and decreased standards of living, these older adults are confronted with social isolation brought about by the death of spouses, family members, and friends. Often because these older adults lack meaningful activities, they feel useless and thus frequently become emotionally and financially dependent on their adult children. Consequently, the problems of older adults are becoming increasingly more important to society in general.[21]

Adult Education Thrusts

INCREASING IMPORTANCE OF ADULT EDUCATION

As individuals live longer and as older adults comprise a larger part of the population, the concept of life-long education will become even more important to vocational educators. The reasons for taking adult classes vary as widely as the needs of the persons enrolled: a homemaker wants to return to the labor market since the children have "left the nest"; an individual in one occupation is bored by it and wants to change; a person in a low–skill entry job wants to advance.

According to a recent report from the National Center for Education Statistics, over 23 million people participated in more than 43 million adult education courses.[22] The report goes on to say that about 50 percent of the participants were under 35 years old, with the largest concentration in the 25- to 34-year-old range. Over 80 percent of all participants were employed; 4 percent were unemployed, looking for work. Almost two-thirds of adult training and development courses were taken for job-related reasons, such as career advancement.

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[21] N. Alan Sheppard, "What the 'Graying Revolution' Means to You," *VocEd*, April 1979, pp. 44–47.

[22] U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Center for Statistics, Bulletin OERI, October 1986.

Demographic projections include not only a decline in the younger population and a surge in the 25- to 54-year-old age group but also a huge increase in the number of persons 55 years old and over. Projections indicate that this group will grow to 55 million by the year 2000.

Enrollment increases in adult education will be a challenge to schools. Existing programs will need to be modified to meet the needs of this new clientele. In addition, new programs and courses will need to be developed to fulfill the life-long educational needs of the public. Current educational policies regarding admission requirements, credit for experience, career counseling and placement, financial assistance, and transportation will need to be reexamined.

The **1978 Adult Education Amendments** specified particular segments of the population that Congress believed had benefited the least from past adult education programs due to inadequate methods used by states to inform them of available services. The Amendments required that states emphasize reaching and meeting the needs of the following populations: (1) adults from rural and urban areas with high rates of unemployment; (2) adults with limited–English-speaking ability; (3) adults confined to institutions; (4) adult immigrants and adult Native Americans; and (5) older adults. In addition to the targeted populations specified in the law, the U.S. Department of Education, in drafting its proposed regulations to implement these amendments, added minority groups and persons with handicaps because they comprise a very large proportion of the underserved and underrepresented enrollment in adult education programs.

The urgent needs of our graying society have been in part recognized in the 1984 vocational education statute. Title III, Part C—"Special Programs," Sec. 321 (a), focuses on the training, retraining, upgrading, and employment development of employed and unemployed workers. Congress expressed the unique needs of the adult work world in its findings that:

> 1. Technological change, international competition, and the demographics of the Nation's work force have resulted in increases in the numbers of adult workers who are unemployed, who have been dislocated, or who require training, retraining, or upgrading of skills.
>
> 2. Many women entering and reentering the paid labor market are disproportionately employed in low-wage occupations and require training.
>
> 3. Many adults cannot gain access to or benefit fully from vocational education due to limited English proficiency, and

> 4 These needs can be met by vocational education programs that are responsive to the needs of individuals and the demands of the labor market.[23]

Congress articulated the purpose of Title III, Part C — "Adult Training, Retraining, and Employment Development," Sec. 321 (b), as that of being to

> (1) provide financial assistance to the States to enable them to expand and improve vocational education programs designed to meet urgent needs for training, retraining, and employment development of adults who have completed or left high school and are preparing to enter or have entered the labor market, in order to equip adults with the competencies and skills required for productive employment, and (2) to ensure that such programs are relevant to the labor market needs and accessible to all segments of the population, including women, minorities, the handicapped, individuals with limited English proficiency, workers fifty-five and older, and the economically disadvantaged.[24]

States are mandated by the act to coordinate the adult programs developed with those being established under the Job Training Partnership Act. Two provisions of the act are a first in vocational legislation. The act instructs the Secretary of Education ". . . to establish one or more demonstration centers for the retraining of dislocated workers in order to demonstrate the application of general theories of vocational education to the specific problems of retraining displaced workers."[25] The Secretary of Education is also mandated by the statute to establish model centers ". . . to focus greater attention on the special vocational education needs of older individuals and to promote employment opportunities for older individuals. . . ."[26] According to the law, anyone 55 years of age or older is an "older individual."

Many in the over-55 age group are searching for ways to stay active and productive. Whether still on the job or already retired, whether driven by inflation or just restless because of unwanted idleness, increasing numbers of older adults are wanting to get involved in adult education programs.

One writer believes that the U.S. economy is suffering a human capital crisis by not responding more swiftly to the needs of adult learners. The chief components of the human capital crisis are summarized under four "F's": Function, Fit, Flexibility, and Frustration.[27] The component "Function" refers to the crisis of functional illiteracy among 20 percent of U.S. adults. "Fit" pertains to the significant number of adults who have extensive knowledge and skills that *no longer fit* the technological changes in job requirements. The third "F," "Flexibility," describes the human capital crisis of about 36 percent of the adult population who find that their work is in transition or that they are anticipating transition in their work. The final "F," "Frustration," addresses perhaps the most dangerous element of the human capital crisis—the personal frustrations of today's workers.

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[23] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Title III, Part C — "Adult Training, Retraining, and Employment Development," Sec. 321 (a) (1–4).

[24] *Ibid.*, Sec. 321 (b).

[25] *Ibid.*, Title IV, Sec. 413, Subpart 3—"Demonstration Centers for Retraining of Dislocated Workers."

[26] *Ibid.*, Subpart 4—"Model Centers for Vocational Education for Older Individuals."

[27] Lewis J. Perelman, *The Learning Enterprise: Adult Learning, Human Capital, and Economic Development*. Washington, D.C.: Council of State Planning Agencies, 1984, pp. 1–4.

Sex Equity Thrusts

Congress, in passing the 1976 Vocational Education Act, emphasized **sex equity**—the elimination of sex bias and sex stereotyping. The law required every state to set aside at least $50,000 of its federal vocational education grant to hire a person to work full time on sex equity. In addition, it specified the responsibilities of the sex equity coordinator. Decisions such as which department within the state department the sex equity coordinator would be located in, what the qualifications and the salary would be, how much authority the coordinator would have, and how much financial support the state would provide for sex equity above the federally required minimum were up to each state.

States varied widely in the ways they implemented the federal mandate. State-wide and regional meetings acquainting educators with the federal thrust to increase access for individuals to enter vocational education were held in many states. Some states developed and disseminated written materials and audio-visual aids to help local schools reach out and recruit nontraditional vocational education students.

> Information provided by the Office of Education's Bureau of Occupational Adult Education for 1976 demonstrates that women are concentrated in courses traditionally identified as intended for them. Women dominate enrollments in Health Occupations (78.7 percent), Consumer and Homemaking Education (83.2 percent), Occupational Home Economics (84.7 percent), and Office Occupations (75.1 percent). Women constitute only 11.3 percent of enrollments in Technical Programs, and 12.7 percent in Trade and Industrial Programs, and 11.3 percent in Agriculture.[28]

The Vocational Education Act of 1976 required each state accepting funds under the act to submit in its five-year plan "policies and procedures which the state will follow so as to assure equal access to vocational education programs by both women and men."

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[28] "Guidelines for Eliminating Discrimination and Denial of Services on the Basis of Race, Color, National Origin, Sex or Handicap," *Federal Register*, Vol. 23, No. 244, Tuesday, December 19, 1978.

Although the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 speaks to equal access, it revised some of the sex equity provisions included in the 1976 Vocational Education Act. It requires a person to:

> . . . work full time . . . in activities related to issues impacting vocational education and women. This full time person's responsibilities include:
>
> (1) Administering the program of vocational education for single parents and homemakers;
>
> (2) . . . gathering, analyzing, and disseminating data on the adequacy and effectiveness of vocational education programs in the State in meeting the education and employment needs of women . . . ;
>
> (3) . . . reviewing vocational education programs and practices which tend to inhibit the entry of women in high technology occupations . . . ;
>
> (4) Reviewing proposed projects submitted by LEA(s) . . . to ensure that the needs of women are addressed . . . ;
>
> (5) . . . developing recommendations for programs of information and outreach to women concerning vocational education and employment opportunities for women . . . ;
>
> (6) Providing LEA(s) with technical assistance and advice in expanding vocational education programs to women; and,
>
> (7) . . . assisting administrators, instructors, and counselors in implementing programs and activities to increase access for women . . . to vocational education and to increase male and female students' enrollment in nontraditional programs.[29]

Each state is required to spend at least $60,000 each year to accomplish the above activities. In addition, each state out of its basic state grant must use 3.5 percent of the funds in programs, services, and activities to eliminate sex bias stereotyping, and 8.5 percent of the funds must be available for single parents and homemakers. Even though the emphasis changed in the vocational legislation, sex equity issues are addressed, whereas in the Job Training Partnership Act, they are notably missing.

In recent years, federal laws, including the Vocational Education Act of 1976 and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, have challenged business, industry, labor, and education to develop policies, procedures, and practices promoting racial and sex equality. *Attitudes* must be changed before actions can be. However, changing attitudes is often a slow process, as no change is possible without some discomfort. Thus, any change is always met with some form of resistance, with apathy being a very common form.

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[29] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Part B—"State Organizational and Planning Responsibilities," Sec. 111 (2) (b) (1) (A).

The Educational Reform Movement

It seems that the educational process is constantly being criticized for doing what it is doing poorly or for not doing what it should be doing at all. Vocational education has certainly not been exempt from such criticism. Instead it has often been the recipient of criticism from other educators as well as from the general public.

One reflection of the public's attitude toward the nation's schools was the Reagan Administration–appointed National Commission on Excellence in Education—an 18-member panel—in August, 1981.[30] Using presidential power to focus public opinion on education was enough to put schools on the front burner of discussion. The Commission's report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, provoked alarm in each state's office of the governor, and a year later, all 50 states were implementing educational reform measures. Although the report's recommendations for reform were not necessarily new, the federal government's initiative was enough to spark national reaction.

In 1983, national reports and studies focused on the poor performance of U.S. schools. Most reports and studies were in response to and/or were devoted to expanding the theme of the National Commission on Excellence in Education.

Most reports, including the Commission's report, tended to focus on the amount of education and seriously neglected the quality of learning and individual differences. Each of the reports stressed issues such as:

1. Lengthening the school day and the school year.
2. Increasing the number of units (credits) required for high school graduation by specifying additional units in English, mathematics, science, and social studies.
3. Raising the entrance requirements for state colleges and universities.

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[30] National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1983.

4. Restructuring the high school curriculum by prescribing five "new basics"—four years of English, three years of mathematics, three years of social studies, and one-half year of computer science, and by requiring college-bound students to have two years of a foreign language.

While it is difficult to find fault with such aspiring recommendations, vocational educators expressed concern that the majority of students would be deprived of a meaningful education as states concentrated on the "pursuit of excellence." Vocational educators in general questioned the wisdom of prescribing the new basics, with little or no regard for the aspirations, interests, and abilities of each student. In spite of such concerns, a significant number of states implemented a good number of the recommendations. Many vocational educators believe that the increasing dropout rate is directly related to requiring students to enroll in additional new basics courses, thus reducing the number of electives students may schedule.

Public Policy Toward Work Education

Learning experiences in the world of work have long been an inherent component of vocational education programs. Cooperative occupational education plans, characterized by blending related class instruction and on-the-job training, and coordinated by the school, have been, to some degree, supported by federal vocational legislation since the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917.

Since the mid-sixties, cooperative education has expanded greatly. Part of this growth is due at least in part to the increased state and federal funding through vocational education acts, higher education legislation, and various human resource acts. The growth of cooperative education can be related directly to the national belief that learning by doing has much merit—the world-of-work involvement has many educational values that cannot be otherwise learned. Most of us agree that work experiences build character and responsible citizen traits. Our nation has always believed that youth must learn to work so that they can develop into independent and productive adults, rather than adults who must depend upon others for their existence. Learning how to work is important not only to our economy but also to our political system, for individual participation in a democracy is largely dependent upon having the competence to participate in its economic life.

In January, 1984, the National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education was formed, partially at least in response to the *Nation at Risk* report released the previous year, wherein the appropriateness of vocational education in secondary schools was almost entirely neglected. The National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education was charged with the task of examining the role and function of vocational education within the mission of the secondary schools. Its report, *The Unfinished Agenda*, strongly supports cooperative vocational education.

> Field-based learning is grossly underutilized. Therefore, we recommend that supervised, field-based learning experiences be made available to all secondary students. Cooperative education must be a "capstone" element in all vocational education programs.[31]

The National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education goes on to say in its report that ". . . cooperative vocational education, a form of field-based learning, has been one of the most successful aspects of vocational education."[32] The Commission found that all students benefit from field-based learning programs. These activities:

- Provide assistance to students in career decision making,
- Provide understanding of the reality of the workplace; allow for trial and error at a time when error is not devastating to a young person's work record,
- Include opportunities to acquire necessary work habits, develop job skills, and establish an employment record,
- Connect students and employers in mutually satisfactory arrangements, and
- Motivate students by providing earnings and potential for regular employment.[33]

Cooperative education and work experience education have grown rapidly at the post-secondary level as well. Indications are that as life-long learning becomes a reality for more and more people, the rapid growth of cooperative education at the post-secondary level will continue.

Assessment As Reflected in Public Policy

Legislatures, as well as the general public, are demanding that education become more accountable. The 1976 Vocational Education Act prescribed for the first time an evaluation system for vocational education. The law mandates that programs be assessed on one primary criterion: student placement and employer satisfaction. The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 requires that the Secretary of the Department of Education ". . . conduct a national assessment of vocational education assisted under this Act, through independent studies and analysis by the National Institute of Education."[34] The National Assessment of Vocational Education (NAVE), a $3 million study, is designed to track the implementation of the Act and the funds provided under the law. In addition, the Act requires each state's advisory council to:

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[31] National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education, *The Unfinished Agenda: The Role of Vocational Education in the High School*, Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, p. 28.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

[33] *Ibid.*

> evaluate at least once every two years (i) the vocational education program delivery system assisted under this Act, and under the Job Training Partnership Act, in terms of their adequacy and effectiveness in achieving the purposes of each of the two Acts and (ii) make recommendations to the State board on the adequacy and effectiveness of the coordination that takes place between vocational education and the Job Training Partnership Act and . . . advise the Governor, the State board, and the Secretary of Labor of these finding and recommendations.[35]

Each state in preparing its state plan will need to gather and analyze data on the adequacy and effectiveness of vocational education programs in meeting the educational employment needs of women. Although the areas in which program assessment are emphasized differ between the two acts, both statutes mandate comprehensive program evaluation.

A Summary View

An analysis of the various laws guiding vocational education's policies and plans clearly reflects our nation's concerns with vocational education and its relationships to the world of work. Vocational educators are being told to provide greater flexibility in programs, to take a more active role in job planning and job development, and to even redefine vocational education roles in the broader sense of education, training, and work.

Nowhere is the demand stronger for vocational education to assume a more active role in economic development. Vocational educators are being asked to develop meaningful work experiences for students so that they can begin to realize the emotional satisfaction and job enrichment opportunities employment can provide. In addition, vocational educators are being challenged to assume leadership roles in job creation through preparing students to become entrepreneurs—to become employers. Many believe the private sector will not be able to provide sufficient jobs for these seeking work. New businesses and industries must be created to establish new employment opportunities. This is entrepreneurship. The problems are complex, but the need reflected in public policy is clear—vocational education must accept the challenge.

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[34] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Title IV, Part A—"Research," Sec. 403.

[35] *Ibid.*, Title I, Part B—"State Council on Vocational Education," Sec. 112 (d) (9) (A).

The growth of vocational education has been very rapid and often without unified direction. With the exception of the federal vocational education acts, which do exercise their controls over educational policy by "holding the purse strings," there has been no national framework of policies for vocational education. The growth of vocational education has usually been guided by a very general philosophy—to provide more work-relevant education to more students. In the years to come, vocational educators will need to rethink the purpose of vocational education. Is it simply education for work? Policies dealing with the needs of young and adult learners, advisory committees, and social and labor market demands will probably need to be reformulated. Many of the trends stated in the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 will create the need for new policies. Issues such as providing vocational education for economically disadvantaged individuals, retraining dislocated workers, providing vocational education for the "graying" population, coordination with JTPA, and training in correctional institutions are important issues that will have grass roots input into policy development.

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a report on your community that describes the existing educational institutions (private and public) and their career preparation programs. Identify also any training programs conducted by government, or business, or labor or industry sponsorship. Which programs use some form of work exploration or experience as part of the plan of instruction? You might want to summarize findings in a chart similar to the one that follows.

Occupational Education Programs in *Your Community*

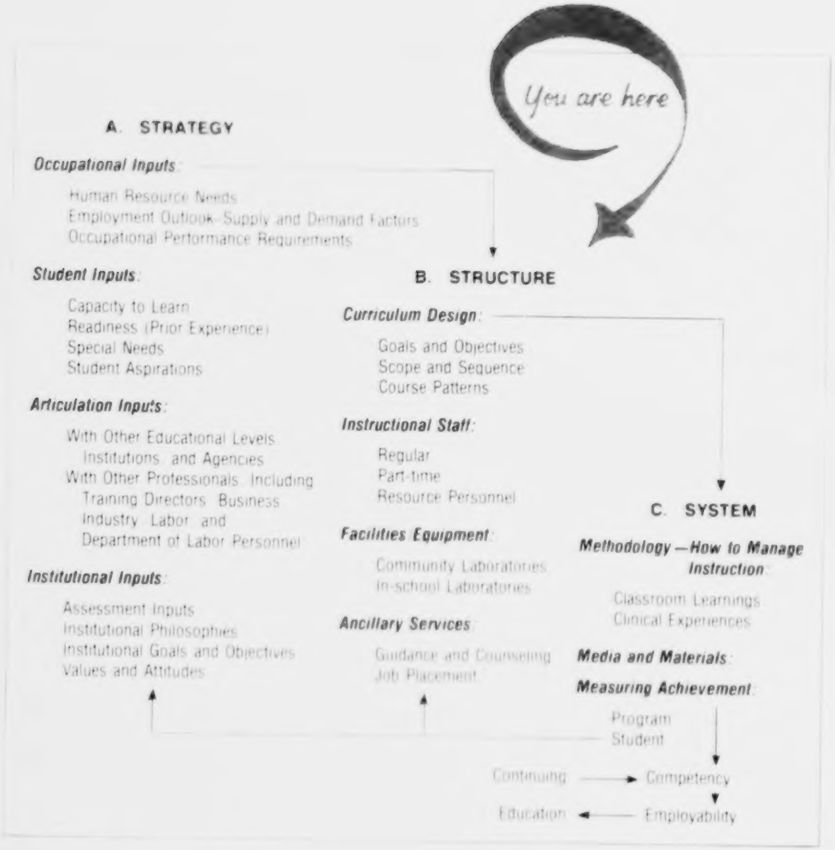
Educational Institutions	**Career Preparation**		**Training Programs**	
	Programs	**Work Environment**		**Work Environment**
Public	1 2	Yes/No	Government	Yes/No
Private	1 2 3 4		Business Industry Labo	

2. Describe the major shift in emphasis of federal legislation. What seems to be the cause of this shift?
3. Obtain a copy of your state's five-year plan for vocational education. What are your state's primary goals for vocational education? Where and how is the use of the work environment covered as a plan of instruction?
4. Obtain data that describe the investment of your state and at least one local community in vocational education. What sources of funds were used? For what programs were these funds spent? Prepare a report to the community (in the form of a speech) that shows what dollars were invested and who profited from this investment.
5. Some vocational educators are not very pleased with the development of federal- and state-sponsored training programs such as JTPA that are outside the public school programs. Why do you believe these programs were established? Whom are they intended to serve? Do they relate at all to the regular vocational program?
6. Prepare a defense for, or an objection to, the concept that vocational education is really economic education and is needed to help each individual live in our present society.
7. Assume you have been asked to speak to a community group such as the local chamber of commerce on the topic of "How Government Is Involved in Vocational Education." Outline the points you would make in your participation.
8. Describe what you believe are the most significant differences between the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the 1968 and 1976 amendments. Describe the major differences between the 1984 Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act and the 1976 legislation.
9. Interview a vocational director. Ask the director which of the following vocational education needs most—money? Better equipment? Community support? Then ask the director how federal legislation can help with these needs.
10. Based on your reading, prepare working definitions for these terms:
    a. Disadvantaged
    b. Special needs populations
    c. Multi-cultural programs
    d. Handicapped
    e. Human resource development programs

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

SECTION TWO

The Structure of Curriculum Patterns — How the Work Environment Is Used at Various Levels



A. STRATEGY

Occupational Inputs:

Human Resource Needs
Employment Outlook—Supply and Demand Factors
Occupational Performance Requirements

Student Inputs:

Capacity to Learn
Readiness (Prior Experience)
Special Needs
Student Aspirations

Articulation Inputs:

With Other Educational Levels, Institutions, and Agencies
With Other Professionals, Including Training Directors, Business, Industry, Labor, and Department of Labor Personnel

Institutional Inputs:

Assessment Inputs
Institutional Philosophies
Institutional Goals and Objectives
Values and Attitudes

B. STRUCTURE

Curriculum Design:

Goals and Objectives
Scope and Sequence
Course Patterns

Instructional Staff:

Regular
Part-time
Resource Personnel

Facilities Equipment:

Community Laboratories
In-school Laboratories

Ancillary Services:

Guidance and Counseling
Job Placement

C. SYSTEM

Methodology—How to Manage Instruction:

Classroom Learnings
Clinical Experiences

Media and Materials:

Measuring Achievement:

Program
Student

Competency
Employability
Continuing Education

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION TWO

Recognizing that the "community can be a classroom," educational institutions have extended their curricula beyond the four walls of the school. To the contemporary educator, the job has become an occupational laboratory, which is controlled and supervised by the school to provide educational experiences that are not obtainable within the school itself. Consequently, the work environment is frequently used as a teaching-learning situation by junior and senior high schools, post-secondary institutions, and colleges and universities.

Regarding curriculum patterns, Section Two centers on the **structure** of decision-making, which is determined by the goals of the student, the educational institution, and society. Based upon the premise that the use of a work-based learning environment is a plan of providing career exploration and vocational instruction, the decision-maker is asked to determine where and when the student should be involved in an occupational laboratory.

Section Two also provides models of curriculum plans, a description of which curriculum patterns are useful in helping students to obtain their goals, and a description of the role of the coordinator in directing community laboratory experiences in the post-secondary, collegiate, and adult training and development environments.

4

Cooperative Education Models

A cooperative education plan requires frequent consultation between the teacher-coordinator and the on-the-job supervisor.

KEY CONCEPT:

> *Cooperative education is a* ***plan*** *for achieving instructional goals within a particular occupational curriculum through a training station and in-school–related instruction.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Explain how cooperative education is a *plan* of instruction.
- Understand the place of the cooperative education plan in the curriculum.
- Identify and explain the characteristics of an effective cooperative education plan.
- Distinguish between Plans A, B, and C as cooperative education plans.
- Identify and explain specialized cooperative education plans.

KEY TERMS

combination plans
cooperative plan of vocational instruction
coordination
method of instruction
preparatory course
program of instruction
sectional cooperative plan
specialized cooperative education plans
student-learner
teacher-coordinator
training station
training station sponsor

In Chapter 1 the essential differences between general work experience plans and cooperative occupational education plans were presented. The major point was that although in both cases the work environment was a locus for learning, the purposes of the two plans were quite different: one was designed to develop general education outcomes as the primary objective, while the other was designed to develop vocational education (occupational competence) outcomes as the primary objective. It is this fundamental distinction that undergirds the nature of the **cooperative plan of vocational instruction**, which has frequently been used as a structural plan to provide education for job entry. The plan has been widely used in marketing education (ME) and in trade and industrial education (T & I) for many years at the secondary level in the public schools. In the past 20 years it has become popular in vocational business education (VBE) and in other specialized occupational areas, such as agricultural education (AG ED), health occupations (HO), and home economics occupations.

Applying the Plan

The general nature of the cooperative plan of vocational instruction was introduced in Chapter 1. This chapter provides a more extensive treatment of its structure. In addition, cooperative plans are described briefly as they currently exist in the various occupational areas in vocational education. It is important for the teacher-coordinator, counselor, and administrator to recognize the elements of the cooperative plan that are commonly applied in different occupational education areas. It is imperative to understand the variations in the everyday practice of program planning and operation that are made necessary by the differing instructional needs in each occupational area. These are further detailed in Chapters 17 through 22.

When secondary school cooperative vocational education plans in various occupations' curricula are analyzed, the common elements of program operation become apparent. This commonality of elements occurs because the cooperative plan of instruction is exactly that—a plan of instruction that is applied to different occupational curricula goals and curricula structures. One cannot conclude that everything is done in exactly the same way. The common elements of program organization and operation must be applied differently in each occupational area. The reason for this lies in several curriculum factors:

1. The nature of the skills, attitudes, and knowledges required in each occupational cluster job title and their relative degree of importance for performance.

2. The type of curriculum pattern of which the cooperative plan is a part.
3. The degree to which learnings are developed primarily in school versus primarily on the job.

LOCATION OF THE INSTRUCTION

The cooperative plan represents a tripartite instructional situation, in which the various psychomoter, cognitive, and affective (attitudinal) learnings make up the package of competencies required in any given occupation. Some are learned solely in school in the related class and applied on the job. Some are learned solely on the job, while others are learned partially in school and partially on the job. In addition, the career objectives of the student mandate that certain competencies, such as how to train and how to supervise, be learned in school, even though they are not required at the student's training station job. Further, the cooperative plan also gives emphasis to discussion in school of problem situations encountered on the job, such as how to get along with other employees and how to benefit from supervision and constructive criticism.

COMPETENCIES TO BE ACQUIRED

The various combinations of skills, knowledges, and attitudes required in each occupation affect the way that cooperative instruction occurs. The occupational competencies vary not only in kind but also in the degree to which they are important. For example, retailing is an occupation in which human relations abilities are far more a "core" of occupational competencies than they are in many industrial occupations. It is also quite true that the occupations vary in the degree to which the skill can be developed in school and applied on the job, as opposed to being developed primarily on the job. For example, basic keyboarding and word processing skills must, and can, be learned in school under controlled conditions. On the other hand, in some health occupations, the equipment on which skill is to be developed is simply too expensive and specialized to be included in the laboratories of most schools. A somewhat similar situation exists in marketing education, where concepts and principles can be learned in school but where the job is needed as a "live" laboratory to provide real human relations situations for customers. However, in all occupations the job provides the student-learners with the realistic climate of co-workers and supervisors and the standards and conditions of actual employment.

THE PLACE OF THE COOPERATIVE PLAN IN A CURRICULUM

The cooperative plan, as has been explained briefly, is indeed that—a strategy, structure, and system of instruction that achieves predetermined goals and competencies in a given occupational field. As a plan of instruction, cooperative education can be the ***capstone*** (or senior and exit experience) of a curriculum consisting of two or more preparatory courses, or it can be ***self-contained*** as a complete curriculum in itself, in which case it provides all learnings without prior course work in the field.

In the first case, the faculty assess the career objectives of the students and decide that there are several courses needed to assist each student in meeting this goal. Beginning courses usually provide basic knowledges as well as develop skills foundational to an occupational cluster. The cooperative plan is used to "top-off" the student's training by providing for advanced development of skills, acquisition of advanced knowledges, application of these and prior learnings to a real occupational situation, and learning of new skills on the job. The plan affects the integration of prior and newly learned abilities into a complete set of behaviors that meet occupational requirements. The capstone approach thus integrates skill and knowledge competencies into final performance, while at the same time, providing the opportunity for each student to learn individual skills and knowledges not previously learned.

In the second case, the cooperative plan of instruction is perceived as a complete curriculum. It does not rely on prior learnings by the student. Similarly to the capstone plan, the self-contained plan has competency-based performance goals, which are those of the market place. Dissimilarly, the self-contained plan does as much as possible for the student in "one shot"—it teaches beginning skills and knowledges and helps the student to integrate these into a final performance standard. The self-contained program has the great burden of taking on an untried student, whose goal may be less than clear, and moving that person to a final and finished performance level consistent with job-entry requirements.

It should be clear that the cooperative plan, when applied to these two approaches to curriculum-building, places very different stresses upon the planning and management of instruction in the related class and in supplementary courses in terms of the content to be taught and the sequence of instruction. Differences will also occur in the job training station experiences needed, because the student who is prepared by prior classroom and laboratory work needs more advanced rather than elementary experiences on the job.

This discussion of the nature of occupations and their learning requirements should serve to demonstrate that while the elements of the cooperative plan of instruction appear similar at first glance, they are applied differently, depending upon the instructional area to be served.

Cooperative Education—A Program or a Plan?

Calling cooperative education a "**program of instruction**" rather than a "plan of instruction" has had a real fascination for local school personnel, their administrators, and state staff educational consultants (supervisors). Their rationale seems to be that the term "**program**" connotes an identifiable whole and can be used as a visible object of publicity. As an entity, it (the program) can "seek" resources in its behalf. It can be "sold" or merchandised to the local educational groups, to the students, to their parents, and to employer groups. This very real usefulness as an identifiable entity is what gives birth to some very real educational dangers. When called a "program," rather than a "plan of instruction," the entity has the disadvantages of:

1. Being difficult to change due to the vested interests of those who created it or operate it.
2. Developing in the minds of those who operate it a belief in its operational procedures and the effects of any change upon the publics who support it. In contrast, a plan of instruction exists primarily for the student.
3. Being seen by educational administrators asked to install it as a wholly new program. New programs not only require a policy decision but also involve commitments for new funding expenditures.
4. Becoming, in at least some cases, a thing apart from the on-going instructional concerns of the faculty. This occurs especially where the cooperative program is operated out of an administrative unit, such as a secondary school district office, and away from the mainstream of the high school or post-secondary classrooms, corridors, and teachers' lounges.
5. Emerging as the province of one person, the coordinator, who may begin to see the program in personal terms as being "my baby" and even "my program."
6. Showing at times the tendency to resist expansion lest control be lost

with increasing numbers, with application to many learning areas within the school, or with inclusion of undesirable students.

DIFFICULTIES IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The viewing of cooperative education, or work experience education, or work-study, as a program rather than a plan of instruction has caused immense but hidden difficulties in educational planning and change. How much better it would be to see it for what it really is—an arrangement or way of achieving learning outcomes. When thus perceived, the plan would be the one chosen if it truly served to bring about learnings needed by the student and if it truly served the goals sought by the teaching group using the plan. In the latter case, the faculty in, say health occupations education, would see the plan as *their* way of better achieving what it is they wish to achieve. Or, in another example, the counseling staff would see the plan as facilitating the occupational exploration concerns with which they deal. Or, the human resource specialist would see the plan as a means of assisting a disadvantaged trainee to deal with and overcome problems of job adjustment after months or years of failure.

Lest this criticism of calling cooperative education a program rather than a plan seems too harsh, it must be remembered that dedication and zeal are to be praised. Most programs are very responsive to local needs. They exhibit adaptation to change. But, all too frequently, the program has become a "thing," and its institutionalism has retarded and even opposed change at the expense of those it was designed to serve—the students.

IS THE COOPERATIVE PLAN A METHOD?

From reading periodical articles and state handbooks and listening to speeches, a person may determine that the cooperative plan is defined as a **method of instruction**. The analogy is to liken the program to a teaching method, such as lecture, case problem, or project. But this analogy is entirely incorrect. The cooperative plan of instruction is a plan, a strategy of instruction. It uses those teaching methods, such as the lecture and the field trip, which are appropriate to the learning styles of the students and the outcomes sought. Further, any effective plan of instruction uses methods appropriate to the nature of the content of instruction, for example, the scientific method of teaching in the physical and natural sciences. The cooperative plan is ***not*** a method of instruction, although unlike most areas of instruction, it does use laboratory learning experiences in the community on a real job as ***one*** instructional method.

There can be no real doubt—the cooperative plan is not a program, nor is it a method. It is a way of arranging all kinds of learning experiences into a suitable pattern for bringing about the occupational learning experience of the students so that they achieve occupational competence.

Characteristics of the Cooperative Plan

The cooperative plan is exactly that—a plan for achieving instructional goals within a particular occupational curriculum. The successful plan in operation exhibits the following characteristics:

1. ***Instruction in school.***—Two kinds of instruction are necessary: (a) basic related instruction—those concepts, knowledges, skills, understandings, and attitudes needed by all the students as a core of their occupational preparation—and (b) specific related instruction—those concepts, skills, and attitudes needed by each student-learner to handle the duties and responsibilities at the **training station** and to prepare for advancement toward the chosen career objective.
2. ***Selected training station.***—A cooperating business, industry, or government agency is selected according to criteria that measure its ability to provide the opportunities for those supervised educational experiences that prepare the student for his/her intended career objective.
3. ***Student-learner with a career objective.***—A **student-learner** is a person who has enrolled in the cooperative education plan for the expressed purpose of preparing for an occupation or an area of occupations. This person is considered to be a ***student*** in the secondary school and a ***learner*** in an occupation in the supervised business laboratory experiences.
4. ***Preparatory courses.***—**Preparatory courses** stem from a plan of instruction that includes a planned series of courses to develop an individual's occupational information and those skills, concepts, and attitudes needed before placement as a cooperative student-learner.
5. ***Step-by-step training plan.***—This is a written plan indicating what is to be learned by a particular student-learner and where it is to be taught—the classroom or the training station. The plan is derived from an analysis of the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the student-learner in the part-time occupation and in the future career position. It is developed jointly by the teacher-coordinator and the training station sponsor, with assistance from the student.
6. ***Adequate on-the-job supervision.***—This involves the appointment of a

training station sponsor (an experienced employee, supervisor, or manager) who is directly responsible for the occupational learning experiences of the student-learner on the job as shown in the step-by-step training plan.

7. ***Qualified teacher-coordinator.***—The **teacher-coordinator** is a person employed by the educational agency to direct the cooperative education plan of instruction. The teacher-coordinator possesses the technical education, professional education, and occupational experience necessary for success as a vocational teacher. The teacher-coordinator teaches the daily vocational classes at the school and coordinates the employment learning experiences with the school learning experiences of each student-learner. Sometimes the teacher-coordinator of the secondary education program handles adult education and training in the community.
8. ***Adequate coordination time.***—There must be adequate time, depending upon the number of student-learners and the geographical distribution of the training stations, for the coordinator to carry out efficiently the organized program of activities that unite the training station experiences with the classroom learning experiences of each student-learner into one meaningful plan. **Coordination** may be thought of as all those activities outside the classroom performed by the teacher-coordinator to organize, administer, operate, and/or improve the cooperative education plan.
9. ***Suitable classroom facilities and instructional materials.***—Facilities and materials adequate for teaching vocational knowledges, skills, and attitudes are necessary for occupational preparation. As a minimum, the classroom should accommodate not only group instruction around movable tables and chairs but also small group or committee work with reference materials available in the room and private coordinator-student conference activities. In some curricula it must also provide for skill development and laboratory practice. A special budget should be available for instructional materials, supplies, equipment, and maintenance.
10. ***Well-defined school policies regarding the plan.***—A local plan of administration and operation should be prepared regarding student-learner recruitment and acceptance of the plan, class scheduling, school credit for both the classroom phase and the on-the-job phase of the plan, minimum essentials for training stations, responsibilities and duties of the teacher-coordinator, and so forth.
11. ***Well-organized records.***—A records system with physical facilities to accommodate it should be implemented so as to maintain current rec-

ords on students and training stations as well as follow-up records on graduates. Library references, text materials, and individual instructional materials should be cataloged and systematized.

12. *Use of an advisory committee.*—A committee representing students, school, parents, business, and industry should be appointed to serve in an advisory capacity to the administrator and the teacher-coordinator.
13. *Organization of a student organization.*—This organization provides the opportunity for leadership training in marketing activities.

Common Secondary Curriculum Patterns

The state plan of vocational education in almost every state usually allows local boards of education the option of using any one of three patterns for the cooperative plan. These patterns were originally known as Plans A, B, and C.[1] Plan A is a two-year plan, typically at the eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels, which consists of related instruction for one period daily for both years, accompanied by a minimum of 15 hours per week of occupational experience during both years. Plan B is a one-year plan at the twelfth-grade level and consists of a double period daily of related instruction plus the 15 hours' minimum per week of occupational experience. Plan C is also a one-year plan at the twelfth-grade level. Like Plan B, it calls for one year (450 hours) of occupational experience. However, the related instruction is reduced to one period daily, but a preparatory curriculum is required, which is described as two units of subjects that form the common core of the particular occupational curriculum. Plans differ in the exact requirements for Plan C. In some states the preparatory subjects must be taught by the cooperative teacher-coordinator; in other states a related subjects teacher may be employed. In some states the preparatory units are one-year courses, while in others they are one-semester courses or quarter courses.

All three plans have merit according to their adherents.

1. Plan A is superior because it provides twice as much on-the-job learning over a two-year period. It also helps prevent students from dropping out by allowing them to earn and learn earlier in their high school careers. Plan A was widely used in many states in earlier years.

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[1] Some state plans revised under provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 have dropped the designation of Plans A, B, and C. However, they are used in this text partly for historical reference, but primarily because they are a useful classification system. Some states also allow modification of these basic plans where local needs demand it, as in modular schedules and programs for individuals who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged.

It is much less used now because of increasing general education requirements and a higher number of credits required for graduation by many high schools and by many states.

2. Plan B fits better in contemporary high school curricula and is useful for students who choose vocational education late in their high school careers. It also provides for intensive and in-depth instruction during the double period during the senior year.
3. Plan C is very popular in some states, particularly where high schools operate on a six-period day with two required general education subjects (allowing only one period for vocational instruction). Plan C also is believed by some educators to provide the advantage of the preparatory class being a "screening" device, giving the student salable skills, knowledges, and attitudes *before* the student is placed in a training station.

There is no research evidence to support the merits of one plan over another. Each appears empirically to be useful in certain local schools.

Specialized Cooperative Plans

Section Four is devoted to **specialized cooperative education plans** in agricultural occupations (Chapter 17), business occupations (Chapter 18), health occupations (Chapter 19), home economics occupations (Chapter 20), marketing occupations (Chapter 21), and trade and industrial occupations (Chapter 22). As mentioned in the Preface, students interested in a specialized area should study the appropriate chapter in depth but familiarize themselves with the other specialized area plans as well. This familiarity will enable them to operate intelligently in a community having more than one plan in operation.

Plans Involving More Than One Occupational Area

Some school systems have developed cooperative plans that involve special occupational areas. For convenience, these plans may be referred to as "combination plans." They have evolved from several needs. Small high schools (defined as those having less than 300 to 500 enrollment in grades 9 through 12) have adopted combination plans, because the number of students wishing training in a given occupational area, such as the trades, is too small to support a full cooperative plan in that specialized occupational area. In addition, small towns often do not provide enough training stations in a given occupational area, and high-cost school laboratories are not feasible. This situation of too few students or too few training stations is also true occasionally in larger schools in suburban areas without much business or industry or with heavy enrollment in the college-bound program. Some larger schools also inaugurate cooperative education with a combination plan and then split the plan into separate occupational plans as enrollments rise. This latter course of action is not recommended in most cases because there is a tendency to continue the plan rather than to split it, on the grounds that "it works, and besides, additional coordinators would put too much strain on the budget." On the other hand, it must be recognized that in smaller communities, particularly in rural areas, the combination plan is the answer to vocational education—without it there probably would not be any vocational training in areas where on-the-job learning is needed.

Types of combination plans.—The term "**combination plans**," as used in this chapter, refers to cooperative plans that involve more than one broad occupational grouping. The problem of semantics is a difficult one in the field of cooperative education and causes great confusion when educators in different states use either the same term to describe different plans or different terms to describe the same plans.[2] Agreement among vocational educators on terminology is badly needed.

There are basically two different kinds of combination plans. These are:

1. ***A true "diversified occupations plan."***[3]—In this plan, one person is the teacher-coordinator for all cooperative students who represent a broad spectrum of occupational areas—business, marketing, and trade and industrial, as well as health and home economics. In some programs, agribusiness students have also been included. In such programs the typical pattern of instruction is one of two:
    a. The teacher-coordinator has all students together in class, using group instruction on topics common to all occupations (general related instruction) and individual instruction (specific related instruction) applicable only to each student in his/her occupation.
    b. The teacher-coordinator has all students in one class, as in "a," but

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[2] For example, in Ohio, the term "diversified occupations plan" refers to a plan of various industrial occupations, whereas, in Michigan and Florida, the term refers to a plan involving office, marketing, and trade and industrial occupations. On the other hand, Minnesota uses the term similarly to Michigan but calls the Ohio plan a "miscellaneous trades" cooperative plan.

[3] For a description of the diversified occupations plan as it originally developed, see Clarence E. Rakestraw, *Training High-School Youth for Employment*, Chicago: American Technical Society, 1947, p. 15.

in addition "farms out" each student to another class, in which the instruction is related to the student's occupational goal.[4]

2. ***A sectional cooperative plan.***[5]—This is a plan in which directly related instruction is given separately to students in each occupational area, but in which one teacher teaches both classes and coordinates both groups. The most common combinations are business and marketing, although a few marketing and industrial combinations are found. The problem of any combination plan is to find a teacher who is prepared in both areas in terms of technical content, professional methods, and occupational experience.

There are many problems in operating combination plans. Combinations tend to be less effective instructionally than separate plans, particularly when a coordinator trained in one field must teach and coordinate in other fields. The means of providing directly related instruction for all students presents a paradox. If the student-learners are kept together in one class, then their specialized instructional needs must be met by individual instruction—a relatively inefficient method, considering the instructional materials that must be found and purchased and the reliance that must be placed on the student's intellectual maturity to cope with individual learning and on a teacher who may not be competent in the student's field. On the other hand, if student-learners are farmed out to other classes, they have a teacher who is not the coordinator, who cannot really know their job situations and their needs and problems, and who is likely to teach primarily for the non-cooperative students in the class. The best solution to the problem is either (1) the sectional cooperative plan when a teacher-coordinator can be hired who is competent in both areas or (2) a diversified plan which has two periods of instruction, one taught by the teacher-coordinator for all student-learners and the other in which students are farmed out to appropriate related subjects teachers. Such plans are further strengthened by requiring prerequisite preparatory courses in the student-learners' occupational interest areas.

In summary, it must be recognized that in a small high school, particularly in a rural area, a combination cooperative plan of some type is better than no vocational education at all. On the other hand, school administrators and vocational education leaders must guard against the installation of combination plans in schools where it is possible to gain the effective specialization in separate occupational clusters.

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[4] Some schools in some states operate plans in which coordinators do not teach their students. Instead, the students are farmed out to other classes for all instruction. Such plans are not true cooperative plans because the instruction is not directly related to the job. Rather, they meet the definition of "work-study" plans, as described in Chapter 1. Unfortunately, the quality of many such plans affects the reputation of true cooperative plans.

[5] The term "sectional cooperative program" was used in the 1949 edition of the policy bulletin of the U.S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, but was dropped following the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

CASE-IN-POINT

Specializing a Cooperative Plan

Allen Lloyd, teacher-coordinator of diversified cooperative education in Center Point, has 15 student-learners with training station placement and career objectives in health occupations in related classroom instruction. He has also determined that there are several more students interested in health occupations for the new school year.

Therefore, with the advice of the general advisory committee and the permission of his local director of vocational education and the superintendent of schools, he decided to remove these health students from the diversified plan group and set up a specialized health occupations plan. This action, ideally, would necessitate the hiring of a teacher-coordinator certified in health occupations.

He proceeded to set up an advisory committee for health occupations and to survey the business community to confirm that there are adequate training station possibilities and is now helping the administration recruit and hire a certified teacher-coordinator.

After the new coordinator has been hired, Allen and the director of vocational education will help get the health occupations plan started on the right basis.

Combination plans using the team approach.—Vocational educators are well aware that the changing nature of the occupational world has developed the need for workers who have competencies in two or more occupational areas. For example, the food sales and service trades encompass knowledges and skills from both the marketing education area and the home economics area. Some occupations involve both agricultural abilities and marketing abilities. Other occupations involve varying combinations of competencies derived from the areas of business education, marketing education, trade and industrial education, agricultural education, and home economics education. There is no doubt that such occupational combinations exist, although much research is needed to determine the competency "mix" of such occupations. There is a need in vocational education for developmental programs that attack the problem of how to devise cooperative occupational education plans that will serve these "occupational mixes." One answer may lie in the diversified occupations plan described earlier in this chapter. The plan of instruction might consist of three hours a week of group instruction related to common problems of all workers (taught by the teacher-coordinator), with student-learners being farmed out to related classes in their career fields for five periods per week; and this may be supplemented by a two- or three-hour block of instruction one afternoon a week in the individual occupational speciality. An alternative solution might be a double-period block in instruction, which is team-taught by specialists in various occupational areas. Exact answers are not known; creative experimentation is badly needed. This problem has been obviated by the creation of shared-time area vocational schools.

Questions and Activities

1. Select from the list of characteristics on pp. 104–106 those that are the absolute essentials—the areas critical to success of the cooperative plan in a particular occupational curriculum. Defend your choices.
2. Describe specific examples of why and how the elements of the cooperative plan differ between two occupational curricula. Which elements, if any, remain essentially the same in practice?
3. Check the terminology used in your own state plan and manuals of operation for the various cooperative occupational education programs. Pay particular attention to your own interest area of cooperative education. How does your state plan or local plan compare with the suggestions in this chapter?
4. Be prepared to discuss the program approach to education in any one of the vocational education areas (agricultural, marketing, home economics, trade and industrial, and business education). Does the series of courses and experiences available to the career-oriented student end at the twelfth-grade level? Explain your answer.
5. Using a rational argument and a specific example, defend or oppose the approach of using the cooperative plan for less than one year.
6. Should the cooperative plan as described in this chapter accommodate young people who are dropouts or potential dropouts? College-bound? Defend your stand.
7. Check the current sources of information on work opportunities in your special field of interest. (a) Determine if there have been any appreciable changes in the types of positions for which young people should train. (b) Describe the career ladders.
8. Prepare a brief paper summarizing cooperative education enrollments in your state. Show trends and, if possible, analyze data showing the sizes of schools in which cooperative plans are found.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

5

Coordinators and Their Roles

The teacher-coordinator explains essential elements of the training plan to a student-learner.

KEY CONCEPT: *Successful cooperative education plans are built by competent teacher-coordinators.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Tell other interested parties about the many unique roles of the teacher-coordinator.
- Identify and explain the characteristics possessed by successful teacher-coordinators.
- Identify and explain the competencies needed by teacher-coordinators.
- Demonstrate how to administer the cooperative plan.
- Discuss the reasons why teacher-coordinators join and serve professional organizations.

KEY TERMS

annual contract
annual report
American Vocational Association
Cooperative Education Association
counselor-coordinator
directed occupational experience
learning manager
monthly enrollment report
professionalism

In final measure, the quality of educational programs depends upon not space and equipment and instructional materials but upon the competence of the personnel involved. This is perhaps more evident in cooperative occupational education plans than in most other school endeavors because teacher-coordinators are highly visible figures. Their teachings and other actions are scrutinized by many publics.

Students are highly responsive to them not only as classroom teachers but also as persons who are a part of their out-of-school lives. Administrators see them as representatives in the community, who, at times, see more people than they do. Counselors are aware of coordinators' close relationships with students at critical times in their lives. Other teachers know that coordinators are daily aware of what is happening in the occupational life of the community.

This visibility of teacher-coordinators leads to an inevitable comparison of performance by many publics, according to their standards. It is compounded by the cooperative plan (or any work experience plan) being a shared-time program in which the institution and the community join hands in a common endeavor. This sharing of the inputs of time and money resources, as well as the responsibility for a student's learning, results in a unique situation in education. There is pressure on the coordinators for management abilities that will assure the success of the plan. The teacher-coordinator is in the spotlight, just as is the marching band director or the football coach.

The Basic Role

It has been said by those who are not well-informed about the cooperative plan of occupational education that a coordinator "is that guy (or gal) who teaches a couple of hours and then goes downtown to drink coffee!" All too often this statement is evidence that coordinators have failed to make administrators and teachers understand what their full range of responsibilities consists of and that what constitutes getting action in a world of work may be quite different from what the in-school person believes it to be.

Coordinators must be recognized as being unique educational professionals, who, at one time or another, are:

1. ***Teachers***, who must be among the best, especially at individual instruction.
2. ***Student organization advisors***, who assist students in developing employment skills and leadership abilities.
3. ***Public relations persons***, who may come in contact with more taxpayers and voters than the superintendent does.

4. ***Counselors***, who deal firsthand with educational, social, occupational, and personal problems.
5. ***Artisans***, who know a trade and the language of the trade and have their employers' respect for it.
6. ***Administrators***, who keep reports and records and arrange the schedules of others.
7. ***Evaluators***, who engage not only in classroom measurement but also in the measurement of students on the job and of the contributions of the plan.
8. ***Planners***, ***organizers***, and ***managers***, who supervise an instructional system.

Teacher, counselor, administrator, student organization advisor, and public relations person—a successful teacher-coordinator is all of these. Although no teacher-coordinator of vocational education is perfect, a person considering entering the field of cooperative education should be cognizant of the qualifications of the ideal model, just as students should perceive the qualifications of the model worker.

Types of Coordinators and Their Roles

As described in Chapter 1, there are many and diverse educational plans that use the work environment to achieve learning goals. These plans are so varied in goals and operational procedures that there are widely differing roles for the person who directs them. Some of these positions are as follows, though not necessarily in order of importance:

1. Director of a general work experience plan or a work-study plan.
2. Work exploration **counselor-coordinator**.
3. Coordinator of professional internships (practicums) (at the baccalaureate or graduate level).
4. Teacher-coordinator of a specialized occupational training plan at the secondary, post-secondary, or adult level.
5. Coordinator of all directed occupational experiences, regardless of the field, in a small school or a shared-time area vocational school.

Of these types, only the roles of the teacher-coordinator, the coordinator of the occupational education plan, and the director of the work exploration plan are discussed here because they deal directly with the process of occupational and career development programs at the secondary, post-secondary, and adult levels.

A person designated as coordinator may be involved in three major activities: (1) coordinating on-the-job learnings related to a career goal, (2) teaching the class in school, which is related to job needs, and (3) career guidance and counseling. There will be many times that a coordinator must assume the role of a *teacher* . . . or a *counselor* . . . or a *combination* of the functions involved in these positions. The job description of the primary role of the coordinator will have a direct effect on the kind of individual needed because of the type of job to be done and the relationship between the school and the community.

THE TEACHER-COORDINATOR OF THE COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PLAN

The vocational teacher-coordinator has two main responsibilities: (1) the instructor of the occupational orientation and related skills training laboratory class in which all trainees are enrolled, and (2) the coordinator of the job laboratory experiences for the occupation. Responsibility includes the training and cooperative work experience activities for only one group of trainees. For example, if there are 20 trainees in the related instruction, coordination covers the cooperative experiences for these 20 trainees only. An obvious advantage to this kind of plan is the constant and meaningful communication with regard to the learnings at school and on the job between the school and the training sponsor at the training station. Another prime advantage is the opportunity for the coordinator to develop instruction that is responsive to the needs of the trainees.

The teacher-coordinator has, from contacts in the community, an intimate knowledge of industry and its requirements. This not only assures the training needed to meet employment standards but also paves the way for job placement opportunities later. The teacher-coordinator, who is a competent trades worker, technician, and businessperson, earns the respect of colleagues at the school as well as that of associates in the business or industrial world. If this basic approach of occupational competence is used, the school will employ one teacher-coordinator in each occupational area being taught. Therefore, eight teacher-coordinators would be needed if eight occupational areas were to be offered. Further, the teacher-coordinator should be a staff member in only one building and not be asked to shuttle between several schools in the district. Shuttling frequently causes the teacher-coordinator to be considered an outsider by the building staff.

With a storehouse of contacts in business and industry, the teacher-coordinator can be one of the most effective occupational resources the school has. As a "floating" teacher, the coordinator on a part-time basis can teach classes on topics such as employability skills and personal attire and can invite individuals from industry to speak to these classes, because of an acquaintanceship with their contributions to the occupational courses. As a resource person, the coordinator can provide the counselor with information about the personal and educational problems a trainee faces.

THE COORDINATOR OF THE COOPERATIVE OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PLAN

The main responsibility of the coordinator who does not teach the related class is to place all trainees in proper training stations and to provide the necessary coordination between (1) the employer and the teacher of the related class and (2) the employer and the counselor. Coordination of communication within the school (administrators, instructors, counselors) is an essential part of the coordinator's responsibilities. In some schools there is but one coordinator handling trainees in all fields in what is commonly called the diversified occupations plan. Typically, in these cases, the coordinator does not teach the related class, and trainees are usually farmed out to an occupational course in each trainee's vocational interest area.

When the coordinator is *not* assigned the basic responsibilities of teaching, that person is able to devote full time to the coordination functions, *i.e.*, contacts in the community, communications with other concerning the plan, and placement of trainees. On the other hand, the coordinator suffers the disadvantage of not directly teaching students and must attempt to get another teacher who understands the student's needs and who will change the sequence of instruction to meet on-the-job needs.

THE COUNSELOR-COORDINATOR

The two main responsibilities of the counselor-coordinator are: (1) counseling individual trainees in a general work experience or work-study plan and (2) directing on-the-job experiences for these students. These and other guidance- and counseling-related duties can account for approximately 50 percent of a counselor-coordinator's total responsibility.

The counselor-coordinator is also capable of providing personal and work adjustment counseling needed by the trainee because of his/her ability to relate to those involved with the work experience plan and to understand the needs of individual students. There is an immediate advantage in using this plan: the counselor-coordinator has a direct and positive influence on the trainees, particularly those who are classified as learning-disadvantaged. However, the counselor-coordinator's lack of occupational knowledge in regard to job requirements and opportunities may be a handicap. In addition, there is usually no class or regular group instruction time when the trainees can relate to the person who knows them and their job situation or when they can profit from relating to other students with similar problems.

The Coordinator's Image

Coordinators, whether of work experience or occupational career education, must sell ***themselves***, the ***school plan***, and the ***individual trainee***.

Themselves.—Coordinators must believe that employers will feel it is worth their time to listen. This will be demonstrated if the coordinator has an obvious enthusiasm and belief in the cooperative plan. As one coordinator said, "The employer is always interested in talking about the business, and you will need to be familiar with the product and procedures, as well as the elementary technical language of the field. The employer will give you time if you are willing to give of your time. The employer will appreciate your having taken the time to listen to problems and to discuss the program and the trainees."

The school plan.—Coordinators will have to sell their school's plan of instruction to many employers who have never participated in an endeavor as a part of a school's curriculum, as well as to employers who dislike anything that "hints" of federal money. Although many employers are interested in helping young people, they are primarily interested in what the plan will cost in time and money; thus, the coordinator should always talk in terms of what the plan can do for a particular business, inform the employer of others in the industry who are participating in the plan, and explain why this plan will work in comparison to other government training programs with which the industry may have been associated.

Coordinators will have to sell the plan to teachers and counselors. By asking their advice and help on individual trainees' placement and by involving them in the process, coordinators may help them to see the value of the plan.

The individual trainee.—It is much easier to sell an employer on providing a training station for a specific person than on a plan that is impersonal. Employers should be told in advance about the trainees' strengths and weaknesses. As programs respond to the mandates of mainstreaming disadvantaged, minority, and handicapped students, it is especially important that the employer be informed about the trainee and agree to be a partner in the student's instructional program. Basic to this communication between the coordinator and the employer is the philosophy of developing the station to fit the trainee, rather than developing the trainee to fit the station.

The Job of the Teacher-Coordinator

The administrator who is understanding of load factors for the staff will recognize that there is no magic formula for calculating the time needed to do a given job in a cooperative occupational education plan. In no way can the administrator interpret the assignment of one coordinator as being equal to that of another, either within the buildings of the district or in relation to others nearby.

VARIABLES AFFECTING THE TEACHER-COORDINATOR'S LOAD

The cooperative occupational education plan of providing learning experiences is individualistic to a particular situation, and the time arrangements made for the teacher-coordinator to carry out the assignment must be evaluated in terms of the variables of the situation. The task list in the following section reflects one state's viewpoint about the tasks performed by teacher-coordinators and the variables affecting the coordinator's load.

THE TEACHER-COORDINATOR'S CONTRACT

The teacher-coordinator's contract should include the following elements:

1. Employment period—extended year and/or extended day (after school hours or nights and weekends).
2. Salary—paid according to scale as teacher with credit for years of occupational experience. (The authors do not support paying the teacher-coordinator on the supervisory scale in a school system.)
3. Benefits—paid for local mileage and supported by travel for professional meetings and conferences.

A State Viewpoint About Teacher-Coordinator Tasks

Each state that has ground rules for cooperative occupational education plan operation has a viewpoint about what teacher-coordinators are expected to do. The following is an example of a task list derived from a bulletin in a state that has been involved in cooperative occupational education for many years.[1]

Guiding and Selecting Students.

Describing the plan to students.
Working with guidance personnel.
Providing occupational information.
Counseling students about entering the plan.
Gathering information on students.
Helping enrollees with career planning.

Placing Students in Training Jobs.

Enlisting participation of cooperating employers.
Selecting suitable training station for each student.
Orienting employers, training supervisors, and co-workers.
Preparing students for job interviews.
Placing students on the job.

Assisting Students in Adjusting to Their Work Environment.

Helping students on their jobs.
Dealing with job problems.
Planning personal development with training supervisors and students.
Evaluating job progress.

Improving Training Done on the Job.

Establishing responsibilities on the job.
Developing training plans.
Consulting and assisting training supervisors.
Maintaining training emphasis.

Correlating Classroom Instruction with on-the-Job Training.

Determining needed instruction.
Assembling instructional materials.
Preparing for instruction.
Teaching classes.
Directing individual projects and study.
Obtaining assistance from other teachers.
Advising training supervisors concerning applications of classroom instruction to be made on the job.
Evaluating learning outcomes.

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[1] *An Articulated Guide for Cooperative Career Education.* Bul. No. 34-571, Springfield, Illinois: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, State Board of Vocational and Technical Education, State Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, 1971, pp. 7–10, 99–101.

Assisting Students in Making Personal Adjustments.

Aiding students in correcting poor personal habits.
Counseling students with personal and socio-economic problems.
Assisting students with educational problems.
Resolving behavioral problems.

Directing Vocational Student Organization.

Advising student organization.
Guiding students in organization of activities.
Participating in student organization activities.

Providing Services to Graduates and Adults.

Providing guidance and placement service for graduates.
Participating in the planning and operation of adult training and development programs.

Characteristics of Successful Teacher-Coordinators

Coordinators are often asked to be "all things to all people." Successful coordinators possess a combination of characteristics and abilities that enable them to meet the objectives of the cooperative occupational education plan: to train trainees for a given occupation and to assist them in keeping the jobs for which they are trained.

Coordinators who have the basic competencies (discussed later in this chapter) should stress their own professional and personal developmental programs to attain the following characteristics:

1. Knowledge about the occupations in the geographic area and about their skill requirements.
2. An understanding and a feeling for all anti-poverty and work training programs in the area, as well as for vocational training programs in schools, colleges, and industries.
3. A commitment to the equality of individuals and to the elimination of discriminatory practices.
4. Sensitivity to the needs and feelings of people—not just trainees—understanding the success, failure, or frustration an individual might feel.
5. Public relations skills—to be aggressive and outgoing, persuasive and communicative as salespersons of the plan, to be able to speak clearly (even if not eloquently) before an audience, and to be self-confident and determined.

6. Self-realization through career education of a continuing nature.
7. The ability to administer the program effectively—to influence and guide without appearing too direct and to handle reports, calls, and appointments efficiently.
8. A personal appearance that is in accord with the accepted standards in industry.
9. A positive self-concept—able to deal with and overcome rejections.
10. The ability to work with little or no supervision.
11. The understanding required to handle the criticism of trainees without becoming defensive.
12. The ability to turn individuals with an obvious lack of knowledge into informed citizens supportive of the special needs of certain groups.

PHYSICAL STAMINA AND VITALITY

The life of a teacher-coordinator is dynamic and challenging, but demanding of physical and mental stamina. Just as importantly, it should be remembered that coordination is not "8 to 4," and that there are some long days because students are employed nights (even on the grave-yard shift) and on weekends. Energy over long periods is a most important asset. The successful coordinator is not a "telephone coordinator," for there is no substitute for personal contact between the coordinator and the various publics—job supervisors, parents, school authorities, other faculty members, students, professional association members, and others. Activities call for foot work, local travel, and out-of-city travel. Good physical health, mental alertness, and emotional stability are "musts."

What does it take, then, to be a successful coordinator? Among other characteristics—understanding, sincerity, sensitivity, empathy, vitality, and, finally, a venturesome spirit that responds to the challenge of everyday problems.

Competencies Needed by Teacher-Coordinators

KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE WORLD OF WORK

Teacher-coordinators teach technology to technicians, public relations to receptionists, selling to salespersons, and the principles of management to future managers. Teacher-coordinators are more than classroom teachers. They are combination teachers and personnel managers who deal with students,

CASE-IN-POINT

The Coordinator Who Turned into an Errand Runner

John Jones, the coordinator at Metropolitan East High School, was a congenial person. His congeniality and ability to get along with others was one of the reasons he was hired for the position.

As John became familiar with his duties as a coordinator, he soon realized that his business contacts in the surrounding area were very important—to him and to the district. Perhaps his mistake was in mentioning to the principal and other staff members, in an off-hand manner, how impressive and meaningful these contacts were becoming.

The first time he was asked to hand-deliver a purchase order for auto parts to the Jones Auto Company and then wait for a few "important" items to bring back—he didn't mind. Nor did he mind the second or third time. When he was in the office one morning, he even volunteered to pick up some supplies for the librarian at the district office "because I'm going that way anyway." It didn't take long for word to get around that John "would be glad to do it on his way." Eventually, he realized that out of his day, two or three hours were being used for other people's errands. He began to realize that he was being "used" and, even worse, the trainees were being cheated.

Luckily for John, he realized early that it was becoming a problem. All he had to do to correct the problem was to be more selective of the kinds of errands he took care of. Luckily for the program, he learned not to be an errand runner.

parents, other teachers, administrators, industry supervisors, trades workers, union leaders, managers, and owners (entrepreneurs). Since they deal with those in the community who are influential, they must possess mature judgment. It is for this reason that certification requirements include recent, varied occupational experiences relevant to the field.

Prospective coordinators need the equivalent of at least two years (4,000 hours) of business or industrial experience. Preferably, the experience should be in the kinds of jobs and firms in which their students will be working. If possible, they should have the responsibility of supervising or training workers on the job, thereby knowing firsthand the problem of maintaining work standards. Coordinators must administer the cooperative plan in a manner that encourages students to assume responsibilities in the classroom and on the job. Essential is the knack of stimulating students to maximum accomplishment. The ability to think in terms of the trade and to talk in the language of the trade comes primarily from occupational experience or from close association with those in the trade. Teachers with occupational experience make classroom instruction more meaningful by bringing their experiences into the classroom. Thus, teacher-coordinators can have credibility by "having been there."

The length of the occupational experience gained by a teacher-coordinator is not as important as the quality of the experience. For example, supervised occupational experience gained through an internship, a cooperative plan, or an apprenticeship program of 6 to 12 months and of relatively recent occurrence might very well be better than several years of repetitive work experience.[2]

It is comparatively easy for prospective teachers (or in-service teachers) to obtain part-time or full-time jobs in business or industry to gain valuable basic experience. However, it is often difficult to obtain currently both the college training necessary to qualify as teachers and the practical experience needed as coordinators. Many individuals do accomplish both during their college careers by working in business full time during the summer and part time for credit during the academic year or on their graduate programs. This alternative is the college-level cooperative education or supervised work-study plan. Coordinators should also acquire additional occupational experience after they begin coordinating in order to keep abreast of change and to expand their areas of competencies.

DIRECTED OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE

An alternative to developing and measuring occupational experience and competence by clock hours has gained wide acceptance. This alternative is the creation of **directed occupational experience** courses within vocational education teacher preparation programs.[3] These courses are designed to include two complementary components: actual occupational experience concurrent with a seminar designed to supplement that experience. The seminar serves to develop and reinforce professional competence required of vocational education teachers. An added benefit of directed occupational experience is the opportunity for preservice teachers to integrate theory and practice, causing changes in their behavior and attitudes toward work and education.

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[2] The state plan in an individual state will indicate occupational experience requirements in general. Certification requirements will translate these into specifics for vocational areas.

[3] Steven A. Eggland, *The Department and Evaluation of a Directed Occupational Experience Program*, Lincoln, Nebraska: The University of Nebraska, Center for Vocational Teacher Education. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, 1978.

National panels of vocational education teacher-educators and state supervisors generated 30 competencies that could be developed through occupational experiences. Then, the following directed occupational experience modules were developed and field tested.

Program Planning

Conduct an occupational analysis.
Develop vocational education plan goals and objectives.

Instruction

Write student performance objectives.
Conduct individual and group field trips.

Cooperative Education

Establish criteria and guidelines for initiating a cooperative occupational education plan.
Identify and secure prospective training stations.
Develop the training ability of on-the-job instructors.
Develop training agreements and training plans for placing students on the job.
Coordinate and supervise on-the-job instruction.
Evaluate students on the job.

Community Relationships

Provide service to and maintain liaison with members of the community.
Develop a plan for school–community relations.

Technical Development

Keep up-to-date in your occupational specialty.

Laboratory Plan

Organize and maintain the vocational laboratory.
Direct student laboratory experiences.

Guidance

Assist students in applying for employment or further education.

Advisory Committee

Organize or reorganize an occupational advisory committee.
Maintain an occupational advisory committee.

Program Evaluation

Establish criteria for student performance in a vocational education program.
Evaluate your vocational education program.

Within the realm of professional vocational education, a test that discriminates between those with different degrees of occupational competency has been developed. A curriculum that supplants or supplements actual clock-hour occupational experience can also be effective in determining occupational competency.

PROVEN CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND LEARNING MANAGERS

Teacher-coordinators, as learning managers, must:

1. Be excellent classroom teachers with demonstrated ability to work with students.
2. Be particularly adept at project-type teaching.
3. Be able to plan assignments for individual students.
4. Be flexible and willing to teach *what* is needed *when* it is needed. This flexibility should prevail both in and out of the classroom—constantly challenging students and job supervisors to their best efforts.
5. Have a genuine desire to assist young people and adults to develop into competent employers, supervisors, crafts workers, and managers.
6. Be prompt, courteous, ambitious, respectful, and sympathetic—if they are to expect the same qualities in those they teach.
7. Above all, be able to help their students to develop as human beings in order to realize their ultimate potential, regardless of what it is.

No matter how successful the teachers' prior experiences have been, effectiveness in cooperative classrooms depends upon their depth of understanding of the learning process and their knowledge of how vocational learning is implemented by proper procedures and techniques in the classroom and on the job. Teacher-coordinators should be able to project into situations confronting their students. If they understand and can empathize with their students, are courteous and considerate, and know their subject matter well, and how to put it across to their students, they will not have to resort to an overt display of authority.

Most student-learners have the desire to learn. Many have had unsatisfactory results in the past and view themselves as failures. They want, and *need*, success. They want to feel good about themselves. The cooperative plan, with its immediacy of feedback from the job to the classroom, to the student-learner, and to the teacher-coordinator, provides motivation for the students to learn. Feedback further reinforces learning experiences. The effective teacher-coordinator harnesses the student-learner's job enthusiasm to learning experiences in the classroom.

Educational Preparation

Teacher-coordinators must usually fulfill certain academic requirements, including graduation from an approved four-year college, with a major in the technical content area associated with their specialized field in vocational education.[4] College preparation may be at the undergraduate level or at the graduate level for those who have a non-teaching degree and includes professional and technical education as well as related general education. Many states are now requiring that prospective teacher-coordinators pass competency exams covering professional and technical education before a teaching license can be issued.

Professional education.—The professional education requirements usually are similar for all the cooperative vocational education areas. For initial certification, most states require professional preparation of at least six to nine semester hours in courses covering principles of vocational education, organization and administration of cooperative part-time programs, coordination techniques, instructional methods, development of instructional materials, and vocational guidance. Student teaching in a cooperative plan is desirable, as is professional course preparation in the specialized occupational field to be taught. Some states require additional professional training for continued or permanent certification.

Technical education.—Technical course work requirements do, or should, include both breadth and depth in the subject matter areas in which the coordinator will teach. The teacher-coordinator should have a major of the kind deemed appropriate by accrediting associations for a secondary teacher. For example, the following technical education requirements, ranging from 18 to 27 semester hours, might prevail.

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[4] It is well for prospective teacher-coordinators to check the certification standards of their own state board of vocational education, because state requirements vary considerably.

Marketing Areas

- Marketing
- Management
- Economics
- Accounting and finance
- Retailing
- Advertising and sales promotion

Office Areas

- Economics
- Management
- Accounting and finance
- Data processing
- Shorthand
- Typewriting
- Office management
- Word processing

Industrial Areas

- Electronics
- Machine tools
- Hydraulics
- Metals
- Woods
- Plastics
- Drafting

Undergirding related preparation.—Teacher-coordinators need not only sound general education but also related course work in areas such as sociology, human resource economics, psychology, speech, and counseling theory and practice. They may especially wish to consider the need for courses relating to minorities and teaching of individuals who are disadvantaged and/or disabled.

To reiterate, teacher-coordinators, because they are teachers, should meet at least the minimum standards in content preparation required by accrediting associations of secondary teachers in that field, as well as have the preparation to function in the coordination role. Some states operating area schools do not hold to this standard.

Ability to Coordinate

Teacher-coordinators must understand the variety and complexity of their out-of-the-classroom responsibilities, collectively called, "coordination."

Can any teacher coordinate?—If an individual has the basic characteristics for being an effective cooperative education teacher-coordinator, enjoys making contacts with adults in the business community, and is willing to meet certification requirements in the state, then the question "But, can I coordinate?" is the main question remaining. This question, expressed outwardly and feared inwardly, is the biggest hurdle that has to be faced when a person is starting a career as a teacher-coordinator. Although a successful career in vocational education can lead to above-average personal and financial rewards and the fulfillment of goals, one must clear any hurdle resulting from this question.

It is logical and natural to ask "Can I coordinate?" And, the question deserves an honest answer. If one can answer it affirmatively, then that individual is well on the way to becoming a good coordinator.

Anyone considering becoming a teacher-coordinator must be willing to leave the four walls of the classroom and the confines of the school building to reach the invigorating environment of business and industry. Successful coordinators would say, then, "If people will work at it systematically, they can coordinate." Given the qualifications of successful teachers and the means of meeting certification requirements, the key characteristics common to the most effective coordinators are systematic work, persistence, and empathy for others. But, what is meant by work in coordination endeavors? Simply stated, coordinators are working when they are using coordination time wisely to help student-learners, to develop training stations, and to develop the plan. All these efforts put specificity into coordination. Systematic planning of coordination time and the willingness to work at coordination take the fear out of the task. Coordination activities have many characteristics of direct selling in that both take systematic planning and work and direct contact with people.

Simplifying Program Administration

The development of useful records and reports is recognized by effective coordinators as a vital activity. It should not be considered as wasted effort. Effective coordinators recognize early the need for records that reflect a true image of their plan, allowing them to evaluate, to back up their requests, and to demonstrate their effectiveness. Successful coordinators recognize and understand the administration's needs to justify every aspect of a curriculum and to give fiscal evidence to the local board, to the state department of public instruction and to any other agency that funds the plan. Public relations built upon facts about the local plan will be more effective than unsupported opinion.

Administrators need to justify every part of the curriculum in terms of its contribution to the educational program of the school in proportion to the budget allocated to its support. It should be recognized also that the administrator is fiscally responsible to the local board, to the state department of public instruction, and to any other agency that funds the program.

Coordinators typically make reports to two groups: the state department of public instruction and their local school administration.

STATE REPORTS

If some coordinators feel that state reports are bothersome, they probably do not know that it is the responsibility of state government to justify, by evidence, the expenditures made of public funds. They may not perceive the need of state staff members for the information that is necessary to fulfill their role as consultants, to provide leadership in program development, and to engage in research.

In most states the state department of public instruction requires only the following basic reports, although some states require additional reports, such as those on wages and hours, individual training plans, and names of employers.

1. ***Annual contract** (a contract for reimbursement for vocational education).*—The **annual contract** is filed by the district administrators at the beginning of each school year. It usually provides for the following types of information.
    a. Name of each coordinator, field of coordination, and instructional schedule.
    b. Daily schedules of coordinators and related class teachers.
    c. Total salary and other expenses, such as planned instructional materials, supplies purchased, and travel of coordinators and related class teachers.
    d. Number of students enrolled.

    This contract is sent to the state board of vocational education where it is reviewed by the state staff members who use it as a basis both for reviewing the program and for planning the funds necessary for the total state program. The approved contract is returned to the school where it becomes the basis for subsequent reimbursement.
2. ***Monthly enrollment report.***—Some states ask for **a monthly enrollment report**, aiding the staff in determining the amount of training being accomplished.
3. ***Annual report and request for reimbursement.***—On the basis of the contract approved by the state board, the local superintendent requests reimbursement at the end of the fiscal year by submitting data on actual expenditure of funds.

LOCAL REPORTS

The coordinator and the administrator should decide which local reports will best provide for evaluation of the plan and for its further development. The following local reports might be considered.

1. Annual descriptive and statistical report.
2. Records of achievement of individual trainees.
3. Weekly wage-and-hour reports.
4. Records on training stations.
5. Step-by-step training plans and training profiles.

Since reports 2 through 5 are discussed elsewhere in this text, only the first one, the annual descriptive and statistical report, is discussed here. An annual report on the plan will be valuable to the following: superintendent, principal, director of vocational education, head counselor, department head, members of the advisory committee, state staff, and teacher-educators. The topics to be covered might include the following:

1. A brief description of the plan, including the purpose, number of student-learners in comparison with previous years, wages, and hours, list of training stations and their locations, and types of related instruction given.
2. A review of the coordinator's activities, including the number of hours spent on various activities, such as number of visitations, number of contacts to establish new training stations, professional activities, professional course work taken or practical experience gained, adult education duties, and student organization activities.

Upgrading Professional Competence

THE PROFESSIONAL FUTURE FOR TEACHER-COORDINATORS

Cooperative education has been taking on new forms under vocational education since 1963. Recently, the National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education's report, *The Unfinished Agenda: The Role of Vocational Education in the High School*, gave a new thrust to cooperative education. The Commission found that even though " . . . cooperative vocational education . . . [was] one of the most successful aspects of vocational education . . . ,"[5] it involved too few students. The report urges school districts to expand cooperative education offerings, and it encourages business, industry, labor, and public agencies to provide more training stations so that more students could profit from on-the-job experiences. Among the Commission's recommendations was that "cooperative education . . . be a 'capstone' element in all vocational education programs."[6]

But even though many public agencies recognize the values of cooperative education, coordinators frequently find themselves justifying the cooperative plan and their own activities. Those who choose to become teacher-coordinators must be professional in dealing with their peers in the teaching profession, with administrators, with the student-learners, and with businesspersons in the community.

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[5] National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education, *The Unfinished Agenda: The Role of Vocational Education in the High School*, Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1984, p. 22.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

During the period of adjustment to, and justification of, new activities fostered by expanded opportunities for cooperative education in the years ahead, teacher-coordinators must seek out, criticize, and oppose those factors, individuals, and activities that hamper the growth of sound cooperative education plans. Vocational educators will need to cooperate with other vocational educators and to support professional organizations of their choice that work for the good of their area of vocational education in particular and the good of vocational education in general.

For successful vocational coordinators, there is a very promising professional future, because of the competencies and the experiences brought to the cooperative plan and learned from working with the cooperative plan. Teacher-coordinators who have several years of experience have demonstrated the ability not only to plan and teach successfully but also to administer, to devise public relations schemes, to work with many segments of the school hierarchy, and to relate to the business community. In many of these activities, there have been opportunities for experiences not available to the regular teaching faculty, as well as opportunities to demonstrate leadership.

Successful teacher-coordinators are many times offered other professional opportunities. Some of these are as director of vocational education for the district, training director for a firm or a trade association, teacher-educator, and specialist in a project of a governmental agency, including appointment to the state department staff. Teacher-coordinators should recognize these opportunities and capitalize upon them with additional training at the graduate level. They can contribute much to vocational education, whether in business or government, if they plan their own career development and acquire the necessary advanced education.

BUILDING FOR PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT

Following their initial certification and acquisition of teaching experience, teacher-coordinators should reassess their career plans and determine the steps that are necessary for professional advancement. Competent coordinators have many opportunities open to them because, to a large degree, the qualities that make them successful coordinators are those that make them valuable for more responsible positions. They have demonstrated depth in subject matter, the ability to work harmoniously with many groups, the ability to teach youth and adults, drive and personality, emotional stability, physical stamina, administrative skills, and flexibility to meet changing situations.

All of these factors contribute to **professionalism**, a necessary trait for professional advancement.

Teacher-coordinators should prepare for advancement by completing at least the requirements for a master's degree, and probably one year of study beyond. They should seek preparation in professional courses within their specialized teaching fields and within the broad area of vocational education. They should supplement their initial preparation in general professional education with further course work in areas such as guidance, learning theory, curriculum, and administration. They should also secure advanced preparation in technical content areas and get more occupational experience.

Coordinators who seek advancement will also recognize that while advanced study is necessary, real growth will occur from experience and involvement. Therefore, they will seek out areas of service on various committees and projects within their schools, in civic and trade groups within the community, and in activities within their professional organizations. Coordinators who are concerned about growth recognize that increasing competence comes from seeking out and engaging in new experiences. Professional service, as well as service in the community, makes coordinators known, further enhancing their opportunities for advancement.

SERVING PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Teacher-coordinators have a stake in the activities and projects carried out by professional organizations. Membership and the seeking of active roles in local, state, and national education associations, particularly those dealing with vocational education, are important considerations.

As pointed out in the *Vocational Education Journal*,[7] professional vocational organizations may set up programs of action, including goals such as quality programs, public relations, cooperative relationship with other organizations, research and development, guidance and counseling, membership, legislation, organization and operation, and international relations. For coordinators, the involvement in professional associations as officers, as committee members, or as participants in professional meetings means opportunities to extend their horizons of understanding as vocational educators. It means opportunities to meet leaders in the field. It means contributing personal and financial support.

Individuals who are concerned with professional improvement should consider joining various vocational and cooperative education organizations. The following are some examples.

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[7] R. Kirby Barrick, "So You Want to Be an AVA Leader," *Vocational Education Journal*, American Vocational Association, Vol. 61, No. B, April 1986, pp. 34–37.

General Vocational Education and Training Organizations

1. **American Vocational Association**

   Services include the *Vocational Education Journal*, the monthly newsletter, *Update*; insurance; a placement office; an annual convention; and professional relationship services with other associations and with the federal government. Address: 1410 King Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22314.

2. **State Vocational Associations**

   Dues and services vary according to state, but there is usually a newsletter, as well as an annual convention and sometimes regional or state conferences. Each state department of education has the correct address of the state vocational association.

3. **American Society for Training and Development**

   Services include various publications and reports. Address: 1630 Duke Street, P.O. Box 1443, Alexandria, Virginia 22313.

A few of the many organizations associated with specialized occupational fields are listed below.

Organizations Relating to Specialized Occupational Areas

1. **National Business Education Association**

   Address: 1914 Association Drive
   Reston, VA 22091

2. **International Technology Education Association**

   Address: 1914 Association Drive
   Reston, VA 22091

3. **American Home Economics Association**

   Address: 2010 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
   Washington, DC 20036

4. **Marketing Education Association**

   Address: 1908 Association Drive
   Reston, VA 22091

In addition, coordinators will want to associate in the local community with professional and trade associations and other non-educational groups that relate to their occupational fields and to community efforts. Not only do coordinators make valuable contacts in such groups, but they also find ways to contribute to an improved community. Coordinators often find in these memberships the social–personal activities and relationships they desire. Examples of these to be considered are:

> *For all coordinators*—Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, etc.; Chamber of Commerce; Business and Professional Women's Club; Toastmasters; Junior Chamber of Commerce; local chapters of associations such as personnel directors and training directors; model cities; and community action groups.
>
> *For those in specialized occupational fields*—groups such as local chapters of the Sales and Marketing Executives; Administrative Management Society; Data Processing Management Association; National Secretaries' Association. (See the local chamber of commerce for such groups existing in the community, and ask employers for suggestions.)

Questions and Activities

1. Describe the major differences in the roles of the three types of coordinators described in the text. What variations in competencies would be sought for each type?
2. After reviewing the competencies described as needed by a teacher-coordinator, which ones would you add? Use a specific community and curriculum on which to base your decision.
3. Describe two situations that use the cooperative occupational education plan: one a new plan, the other, one of quality and of several years' longevity. Describe the differences in the tasks of the coordinator in each case, and indicate for each which competencies would be more or less important.
4. Review the tasks of teacher-coordinators listed in this chapter in the Section "A State Viewpoint of Teacher-Coordinator Tasks." Put the tasks in order of importance and defend the priority sequence. Add other tasks you believe are needed.
5. Given only the choice of employing, for an on-going cooperative plan, a graduate trained as a teacher of occupational subjects and coordination or a person of substantial experience in the occupation with a degree and limited professional preparation, which would you hire? Prepare a statement of recommendation to the administration, defending your choice.
6. If a coordinator is believed by some people in the school and in the community to be a "guy (or gal) who goes downtown to drink coffee," what steps could the coordinator take to allay this suspicion and create a better image?
7. It is said that in some schools the vocational coordinator is seen by classroom teachers as competing for students and in other ways becoming a threat. In what ways might this be true? If so, what can the coordinator do about it?
8. Make up a list for the school administration of the convincing arguments for the coordinator to be employed for additional weeks beyond the school year and additional time beyond the customary school day.
9. Should coordination visitation time differ because of the location of the training stations? Consider the situation where an ME coordinator has most trainees placed in a shopping mall approximately 2 miles from the school. The ICE coordinator, on the other hand, has 20

students in 14 different occupations placed in three counties, with driving time up to 35 minutes. Should each coordinator have the same amount of time? Why or why not?

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

6

Initiating the Plan

The teacher-coordinator must plan with the student-learner and the job supervisor in developing a new training station.

KEY CONCEPT: *Planning cannot be done at the last minute—it involves an organized sequence of activities over a period of months.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- List the initial steps that are used in structuring the cooperative plan.
- Distinguish between a steering committee and an advisory committee.
- Conduct a community survey.
- Prepare a calendar of events that the teacher-coordinator can use in developing the cooperative plan.

KEY TERMS

advisory committee
calendar of events
community survey
steering committee

The success of any venture, whether in education, government, business, or private life, rests with the initial planning done to establish the strategy of the venture and to provide the time and resources necessary for supportive service. Short-range and long-range planning, the organizing and marshalling of resources, the planning and staffing, the commitment to public relations, and the management of learning experiences are just as important to the educational venture as they are to a newly formulated business enterprise, a community swimming club, a sporting league, or a local fund-raising campaign. Some of the steps in initiating a venture may be skipped, but for each basic one omitted there is a price to pay both in terms of effectiveness and quality and in terms of human and material resource losses.

Initial Steps in Structuring the Cooperative Plan

The success of the cooperative education plan is dependent in many ways upon careful long-range planning and proper attention to organizational details. A school that makes last-minute decisions in the spring or summer to start a plan the following fall faces many difficulties. Problems in recruiting a qualified teacher-coordinator, in selecting and scheduling student-learners, and in selecting and developing training stations on a sound educational basis cannot be solved quickly. The long-range success of the plan will be jeopardized by hasty actions. When a well thought-out plan is properly executed, fewer problems arise if the people involved understand their roles.

Why should emphasis be given to the process of initiating a plan? There are several reasons. First, some districts do not yet have any cooperative plan, or, at best, they have a loosely supervised released-time work program. Second, some districts have an on-going cooperative plan in one area, such as business education, but they want to start up others, for example, in health and in trade and industrial. Third, some districts have an on-going plan in an area such as marketing education and want to start specialized programs, such as wholesaling and petroleum marketing, in that area. Regardless of the situation, the calendar of events described later in this chapter can be used to initiate a plan or to renovate an existing one.

Initiating a Plan

The idea of using the cooperative occupational education plan in a school or adding the plan to another department in a school may originate with an administrator, with a department head or teacher, with a high school principal, or with a business or an industrial group or association within the community. Whatever the initial source may be, the chief school administrator or an assigned deputy is the person who must be consulted regarding the possibility of using this instructional strategy. This person is the one who is concerned with developing a quality addition to the curriculum and with maintaining minimum standards to qualify for vocational funds for reimbursable programs. However, the actual responsibility for organizational activities is delegated—usually to the prospective teacher-coordinator, who has been hired in advance, or sometimes to the head of the appropriate department, another teacher in the department, or the administrator of vocational education.

INVOLVING KEY INDIVIDUALS IN THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

Planning and organizing a cooperative plan should be a team effort in involving key figures in the school and the community. School personnel involved are: (1) the administrators, including the superintendent, the director of the curriculum, the principal, and the director of vocational education or the department head; (2) counselors; and (3) other teachers in the department. From outside school, help should be sought from: (1) the local state employment service office; (2) local leaders in business, industry, and labor; (3) representatives from the state department of vocational education; and (4) a teacher-education institution. Naturally, in any given community, the type and size of the school and the kind of cooperative plan to be established will dictate the individuals to be involved in the development of the plan. The coordinator will be the key figure in the organizational effort, for it is the coordinator who has been assigned the responsibility of solving problems.

USING A STEERING COMMITTEE

A most logical next step is to seek the consultative advice of interested publics within the school and the local community. An appropriate vehicle is a **steering committee**. This committee is usually temporary in nature and is designed to give an advisory "yes" or "no" reply to the question "Should we start a cooperative occupational education plan in our school system?" This reply is sought after proper and adequate orientation to the goals and objectives of the plan. A given school system may be considering starting more than one type of cooperative plan. If so, the steering committee might consider all of them and their interrelationships when advising whether to start one or all of them.

A steering committee should be appointed by the superintendent of schools in a letter of invitation. One might consider as feasible in most communities a membership of 18 to 25 persons selected from the following:

From education:	District office Director of vocational education High school administration Guidance Department heads in occupational areas Student council Professional education association (local)
From business:	Owners, managers, personnel directors, from businesses and government agencies Professional and trade associations Chamber of commerce State employment service
From labor:	Labor unions and councils High school graduates working in business, industry, or government
From the news media:	Newspaper, radio, television
From parents:	PTA and/or groups such as the League of Women Voters
From the community:	Community action groups and social/civic clubs

The steering committee's first meeting can be planned around an orientation of the members to the objectives of a cooperative occupational education plan and how it operates. Resource persons from the state board of vocational education or from a teacher-education institution may be called in. Visual aids may be shown. Committee members should then be instructed to take this information to the organizations they represent, gather reactions to the plan, and be prepared to come back to a second steering committee meeting to assist in deciding "yes" or "no" about organizing a plan in the local schools. Working committees may be appointed to gather information before the second meeting through surveys and research of various types.

SURVEYING THE STUDENT BODY AND THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY

In deciding whether to start a plan, secure the following types of information through surveys of the student body and the business community:

1. Need for trained, career-minded persons in marketing occupations, trade and industrial occupations, business occupations, health occupations, home economics occupations, and others in the community.
2. Opportunities for part-time training placements in the business community.
3. Any changing pattern of business enterprises in the community that would affect employment opportunities.
4. Vocational interests of high school students that could be met by cooperative occupational education plans.
5. Post-secondary educational interests of high school students that could supplement, or be supplemented by, cooperative education offerings.
6. Physical facilities for cooperative education.
7. Locations of recent graduating class members and the occupations they entered.

Letters with return post-card forms are frequently used to gather information. Personal contact interviews are most effective if personnel can be assigned to these duties. A double post-card mailout form is not as effective as the personal interview but often will provide leads that can be followed up personally by the coordinator. A sample **community survey** form is shown as Figure 6-1.[1]

USING AN ADVISORY COMMITTEE

The steering committee is *temporary*. It should be dissolved after a decision is made as to whether to start a cooperative occupational education plan. At that time an **advisory committee** should be appointed, if the decision regarding the plan has been affirmative. The duty of the committee is strictly advisory; educational policy remains under the control of the superintendent of schools. The advisory committee should remain a sounding board for advice on operating procedures. The committee may be asked for advice on public information programs and may assist in these activities. It may suggest sources of training stations and sources and types of instructional materials, assist with student organization events, provide resource personnel for related classroom instruction, recommend minimum standards for students, assist

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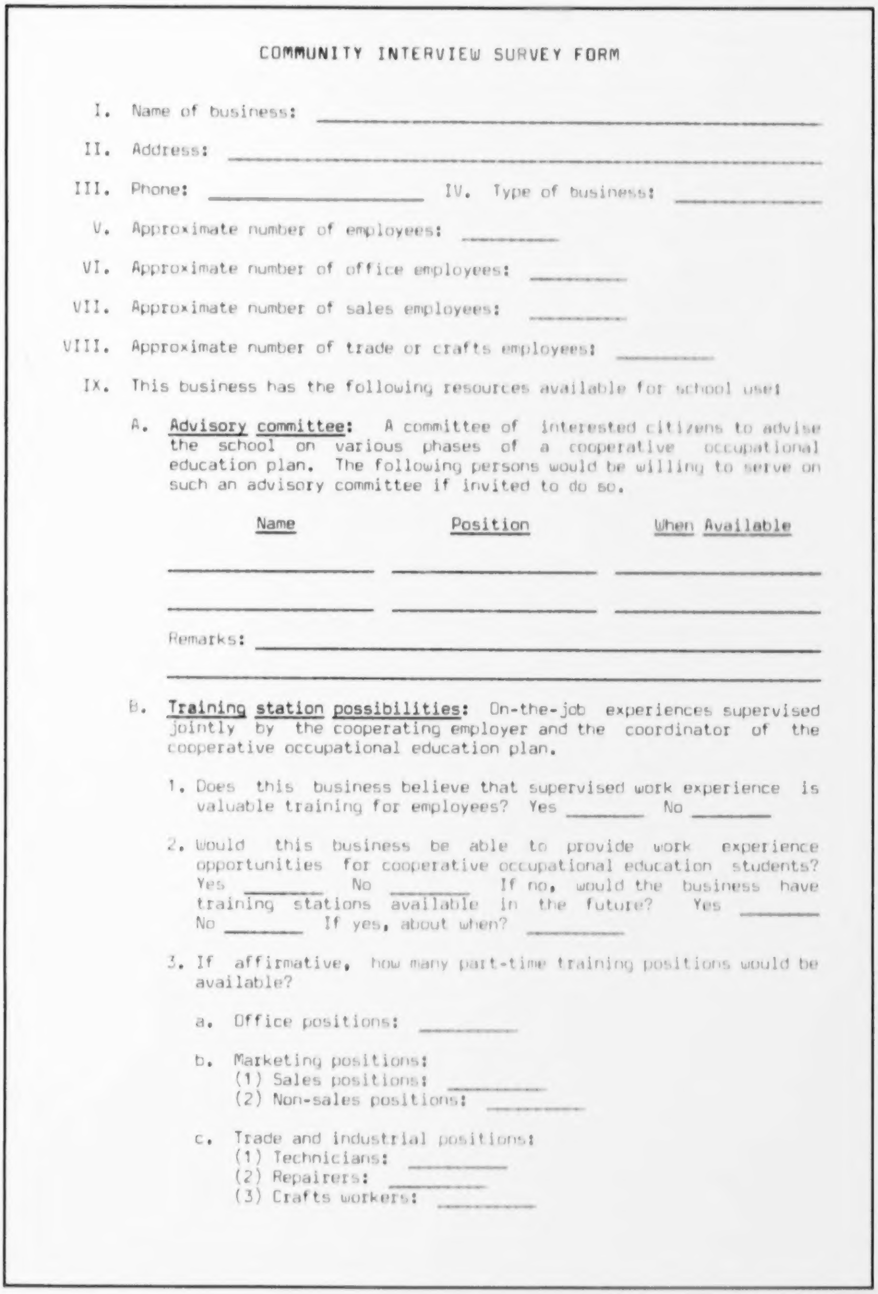
[1] Consult "Informal Research by the Classroom Business Teacher," *The American Business Education Yearbook*, Vol. 18, 1961, p. 97, for additional ideas on questions that may be asked about community resources.



COMMUNITY INTERVIEW SURVEY FORM

I. Name of business: ______________________________

II. Address: ______________________________

III. Phone: ______________ IV. Type of business: __________

V. Approximate number of employees: ________

VI. Approximate number of office employees: ________

VII. Approximate number of sales employees: ________

VIII. Approximate number of trade or crafts employees: ________

IX. This business has the following resources available for school use:

A. **Advisory committee:** A committee of interested citizens to advise the school on various phases of a cooperative occupational education plan. The following persons would be willing to serve on such an advisory committee if invited to do so.

Name	Position	When Available
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________

Remarks: ______________________________

____

B. **Training station possibilities:** On-the-job experiences supervised jointly by the cooperating employer and the coordinator of the cooperative occupational education plan.

1. Does this business believe that supervised work experience is valuable training for employees? Yes ______ No ______

2. Would this business be able to provide work experience opportunities for cooperative occupational education students? Yes ______ No ______ If no, would the business have training stations available in the future? Yes ______ No ______ If yes, about when? ________

3. If affirmative, how many part-time training positions would be available?

a. Office positions: ________

b. Marketing positions:
   (1) Sales positions: ________
   (2) Non-sales positions: ________

c. Trade and industrial positions:
   (1) Technicians: ________
   (2) Repairers: ________
   (3) Crafts workers: ________

FIG. 6-1

CASE-IN-POINT

In our vocational education classes we learn of the importance of advisory committees. Unfortunately, the importance of these lectures is often lost. Many programs have "paper committees," or a list of names of people who rarely if ever meet. To illustrate the importance of an advisory committee, let's examine the case of one new coordinator and how a successful advisory committee helped launch his program and career.

Stewart Husted, one of the co-authors of this text, took his first job as a marketing education teacher-coordinator in Decatur, Georgia, a suburb of Atlanta. Stewart's responsibility was to start a new program at Towers High School. During the summer months before school started, Husted recruited 32 students from a list given to him by a guidance counselor and his department chairperson. In addition, he put together an advisory committee of seven business, school, and community leaders.

On the committee was the general manager of a small local radio station. The general manager had the idea of teaching the students about radio advertising and personal selling. He volunteered one hour of air time each Saturday morning and dedicated the programming to a teen show. The marketing education students, working with a station DJ, then produced their own show called "The Morning After."

The entire DECA chapter became involved. The focal point was the selling of ads and then producing them for the show. Students were given the opportunity not only to sell ads and develop copy but also to do live on-the-air ads. As an additional motivator, the general manager donated the income earned to the Towers DECA chapter.

The success of the advisory committee member's ideas was phenomenal. The DECA chapter developed its idea into a project that was entered in the Sales and Marketing Executive International Creative Marketing Event. Working with an account executive from J. Walter Thompson, an ad agency, the students conducted marketing research and expanded their project to include publicity. The project was featured on several Atlanta TV stations and in one national publication. The students' reward, besides a world of new knowledge, was the second place in the state event and a fourth place in the state Chapter-of-the-Year Event. Furthermore, the publicity generated created tremendous student interest. The following year over 120 students applied for the marketing education program.

with the employer-employee appreciation events, and identify adult education needs.

Certain members of the steering committee may be asked to serve on the advisory committee. An advisory group of 7 to 12 persons selected from the following representation is suggested.[2]

Education:	The administration Guidance personnel Teacher-coordinator
Business:	Chamber of commerce Civic or professional clubs Training stations—employers
Labor:	Organized labor
Parents:	PTA, or similar representation
Students:	A capable student-learner, perhaps the president of the student organization

Staggered terms for advisory committee members provide in the future for membership of both experienced and inexperienced persons. A separate advisory committee for each cooperative occupational education area is recommended to take advantage of specialized interests and talents. It is possible for a single advisory committee to serve all cooperative plans, but a single committee cannot devote its attention to the specialized problems of the individual plans as effectively as can separate committees.

The committee should be chaired by a non-school person, with the coordinator acting as secretary. Formal meetings should be called only at times when planned agendas justify such meetings. Businesspersons, like teachers, are busy people. Their time should be used efficiently. Usually about three formal meetings a year will suffice, supplemented by the coordinator's seeking counsel from individual members informally during the school year. Figure 6-3 provides an example of a letter of invitation to an employer that offers a general explanation of the committee's purpose and time commitment.

HIRING A TEACHER-COORDINATOR

The *teacher-coordinator* is hired by the administration soon after the steering committee has given the go-ahead for organizing a cooperative occupational education plan. The person who is hired proceeds to carry out the activities outlined in the calendar of events. Coordination time is provided as

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[2] The size of the advisory committee may vary depending upon what is considered an effective size for the job to be done.

WILL YOUR PRESENT SCHOOL DISTRICT OVER-ALL OCCUPATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE BE USEFUL FOR YOUR COOPERATIVE PLAN?

	Yes	No*
1. Do the businesses represented on the committee help to provide training stations, through their businesses or friends?	☐	☐
2. Are the members genuinely interested in the welfare of the trainee and in a quality plan?	☐	☐
3. Is the committee willing to meet regularly, perhaps bi-monthly, to assess the successes and failures of the plan?	☐	☐
4. Are the members willing, if the need arises, to be resource speakers for a group of trainees -- to "level" with them about the realities of the business world, or to provide someone to help develop this linkage for those who are being prepared for co-op?	☐	☐
5. Are the members willing to sell the plan through the various professional agencies to which they belong?	☐	☐
6. Do the members come in close contact with the occupational group your trainees represent?	☐	☐
7. Do the members belong to the same trade groups and business / social associations?	☐	☐

__NOTE:__ The above checklist can be very helpful in determining whether your current advisory committee is useful for your cooperative plan.

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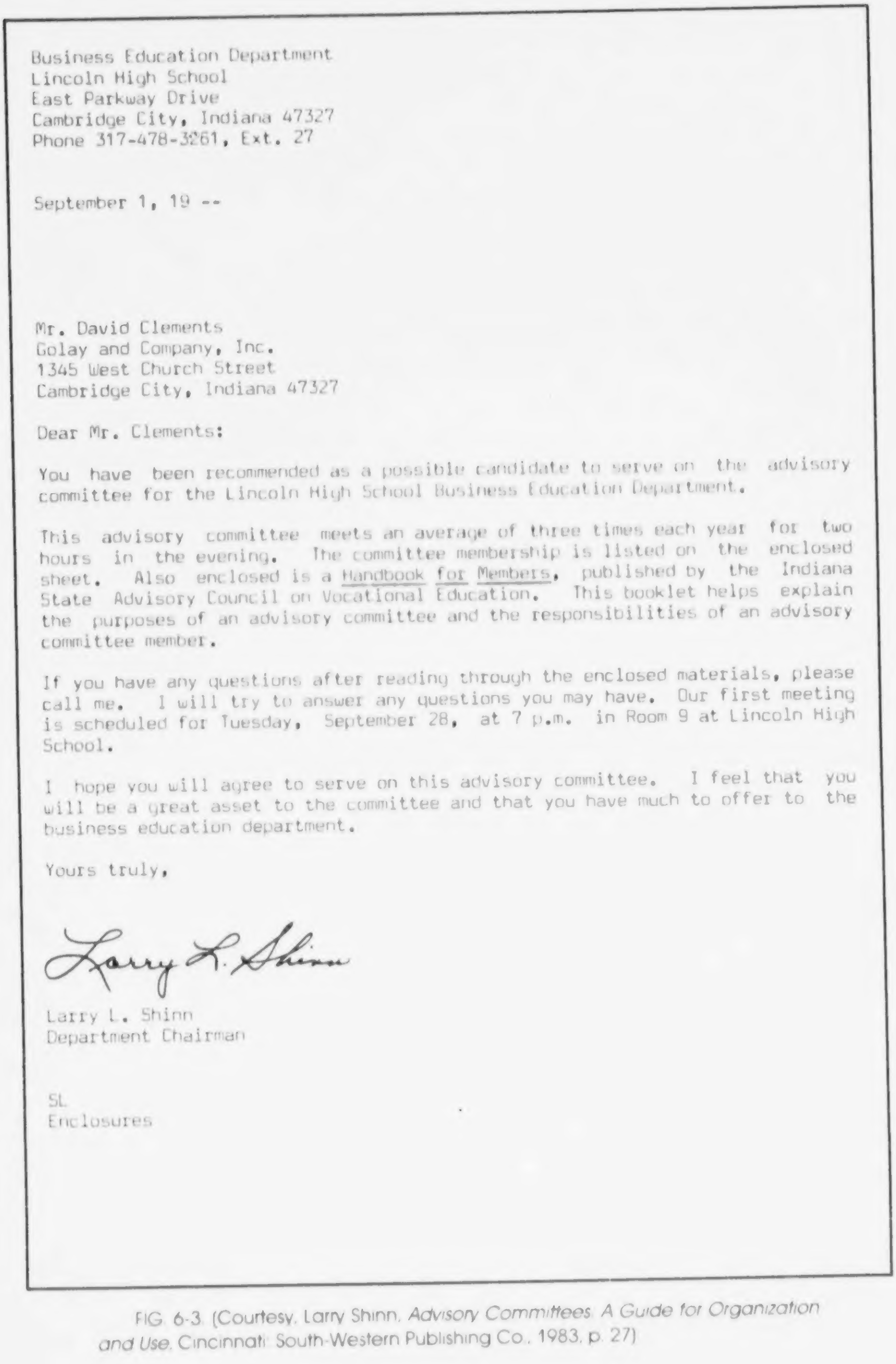
*If one or more answers to these questions are "No," your present occupational advisory committee may not be appropriate for your cooperative plan. A __new__ advisory committee should be organized to relate closely to the cooperative plan and the occupation it represents.

FIG. 6-2



Business Education Department
Lincoln High School
East Parkway Drive
Cambridge City, Indiana 47327
Phone 317-478-3261, Ext. 27

September 1, 19 --

Mr. David Clements
Golay and Company, Inc.
1345 West Church Street
Cambridge City, Indiana 47327

Dear Mr. Clements:

You have been recommended as a possible candidate to serve on the advisory committee for the Lincoln High School Business Education Department.

This advisory committee meets an average of three times each year for two hours in the evening. The committee membership is listed on the enclosed sheet. Also enclosed is a Handbook for Members, published by the Indiana State Advisory Council on Vocational Education. This booklet helps explain the purposes of an advisory committee and the responsibilities of an advisory committee member.

If you have any questions after reading through the enclosed materials, please call me. I will try to answer any questions you may have. Our first meeting is scheduled for Tuesday, September 28, at 7 p.m. in Room 9 at Lincoln High School.

I hope you will agree to serve on this advisory committee. I feel that you will be a great asset to the committee and that you have much to offer to the business education department.

Yours truly,

Larry L. Shinn

Larry L. Shinn
Department Chairman

SL
Enclosures

FIG. 6-3. (Courtesy, Larry Shinn, *Advisory Committees: A Guide for Organization and Use*, Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1983, p. 27) part of the contract time, but it must fit the conditions of the teacher's contract in the district. An experienced teacher who considers qualifying as a teacher-coordinator might well investigate the demands of program activities on physical stamina and emotional stability and general health. The administration needs assurance that the person selected can measure up to these demands. Businesspersons expect enthusiasm and leadership from the coordinator. Because of contacts with so many publics (school staff, businesspersons, students, and parents), the teacher-coordinator must have the abilities, background, and aptitudes to deal successfully with all of them.[3]

Sources of qualified teacher-coordinators.—There are three main sources of qualified teacher-coordinators: (1) graduates of teacher-education institutions who have prepared themselves during their undergraduate programs as coordinators; (2) experienced teachers with depth in occupational subject matter content and with practical business or trade experience background, who, in graduate school, have prepared for coordination through professional and technical courses in their specialized fields; and (3) individuals from business or industry who take course work for conditional certification and who agree to undertake additional professional and technical training for certification.

A Calendar of Events—Stages in the Development of the Plan

The planning and organizational elements described in the following pages are often best acquired by the use of an outline of activities to be accomplished. This outline is called a "**calendar of events**." It will serve as a guide for school officials who have been delegated the responsibility of getting the cooperative plan under way. The outline shown here may be adjusted to fit the needs of any local community; it is a general guide to planning.[4]

A glance at the calendar of events indicates the prudence of long-range planning for a cooperative occupational education plan.[5] Many school systems are wisely employing their teacher-coordinators one year in advance of the start of cooperative classes. A typical situation would find the teacher-coordinator with a half-time load for organizational duties for the proposed cooperative education plan and a half-time teaching load. In addition, assigning the new teacher-coordinator to public relations responsibilities during the first year, such as soliciting advertising space for the yearbook, provides acquaintanceship with the business community. Further, the school administrators can determine how well the person adjusts to, and is accepted by, the community and the school. For clarity, the steps are shown on a 24-month schedule, but, of course, this could be shortened into a school year if sufficient resources are available. For this example, a high school district is used.

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[3] See Chapter 5 for an extensive discussion of the roles and the competencies required of teacher-coordinators

[4] Adapted from *A Handbook for Michigan Teacher-Coordinators of Cooperative Occupational Education Programs*. East Lansing: Michigan State University, Research and Development Program in Vocational-Technical Education, 1969. This document was produced and distributed in a cooperative project with the Division of Vocational Education, Michigan Department of Education

[5] In some cases the school officials may hire a coordinator to do the entire organizational job or may delegate it to a teacher or a department head who has expressed interest in becoming a coordinator

September–January

Interest in the plan is expressed by the principal, a department head and/or a teacher, by a business or an industrial group within the community, or by the superintendent. Regardless of who originates the idea it is the superintendent or a designated deputy who must be consulted regarding the possibility of starting a cooperative occupational education plan.

The superintendent informs the department of education, division of vocational education, of interest in cooperative education and may desire to request consulting service from the division of vocational education.

A steering committee from business, education, labor, news media, and parents is appointed by the administration via a written invitation. This committee, temporary in nature, has for its purpose to render a decision as to whether or not there should be a cooperative occupational education plan started in the school system.

February

The first meeting of the steering committee should accomplish the purpose of orienting the group to the objectives of cooperative education and the way in which this type of plan operates.

A working committee may be appointed from the steering committee to gather information through surveys and research for presentation at the second meeting, at which time a final decision is made as to the desirability of cooperative education in the school system. The purpose of these surveys and research should be to obtain answers to the following suggested questions.

1. Is there a need for trained, career-minded persons in various occupations to be enrolled by the proposed cooperative education plan?

2. Are there opportunities for part-time training placement in the community?
3. Are there apparent changing patterns either in the growth or the decline of business in the community that would affect employment opportunities?
4. Do the students have vocational interests that could be met by cooperative occupational education plans?
5. Do the students have post-secondary interests that could supplement, or be supplemented by, cooperative education?
6. What physical facilities and equipment are available or needed in the school to provide cooperative education?
7. What types of occupations have recent graduating class members been able to enter?
8. Are parents and businesspersons supportive?

March

The second meeting of the steering committee should be an action meeting where the results of the various surveys and research would be presented and analyzed. The committee would then be expected to act upon the findings and *assist* in making a decision as to "yes" or "no" about organizing a cooperative occupational education plan in the school system. After this decision is made, the steering committee is dissolved.

April

If the steering committee's decision is affirmative, action is taken by the administration to select a vocationally certified teacher-coordinator and to designate organizational responsibilities to school administration until the person is hired and on the job. The administration can usually rely on the following sources to obtain a qualified teacher-coordinator.

1. Graduates of teacher-education institutions who have taken undergraduate programs to prepare themselves as coordinators in the specialized areas.
2. Experienced classroom teachers, with depth of subject matter content and with practical industrial and/or business work experience background.
3. Individuals from business and industry who take course work for conditional certification and who undertake additional professional and technical training for permanent certification.

With more teachers studying cooperative education in preservice or graduate classes, the administration may find a member of the existing teaching staff who has the proper background to qualify for the provisional position of teacher-coordinator.

May or June

The new teacher-coordinator is hired to organize the plan during the coming school year.

September

The advisory committee is appointed by the administration. Duties of this committee should be strictly advisory; all policy remains under the control of the administration. The advisory committee should act as a sounding board for advice on operating procedures. Certain members of the steering committee may be asked to serve on the advisory committee. It is suggested that the advisory committee consist of 7 to 12 persons selected from education, business, labor, parents, and students.

Having staggered terms for the advisory committee members will provide for the future membership of both experienced and inexperienced persons. In a large school system a separate advisory committee for each cooperative occupational education plan might be advantageous; however, in a small system a single advisory committee might serve all cooperative plans very effectively. The committee should be chaired by a non-school person, with the teacher-coordinator acting as secretary. Formal meetings should be called only when there is a need and a planned agenda justifies such meetings. Formal meetings can be supplemented by the coordinator's seeking counsel from individual members informally.

October

The first advisory committee meeting should be for the purpose of orientation. This would be a meeting where the goals and objectives of the plan and the purpose of the committee could be discussed. In order for the committee to be an effective part of the plan, each member of the committee should have a definite part in planning the over-all operation of the plan. Some of the activities of the advisory committee could include:

1. Suggesting training stations.
2. Suggesting and helping to secure classroom materials and equipment.
3. Acquainting the coordinator with influential businesspersons

and labor leaders in the community and making arrangements for the coordinator to talk to various groups.

4. Making recommendations as to minimum employment standards for student-learners and reviewing the course content or courses to see whether they are vocationally sound and in keeping with occupational needs of the community.
5. Helping to identify adult education needs in the community.
6. Explaining the cooperative plan to their friends and their co-workers.
7. Working with the school in developing evaluation procedures for the cooperative plan.
8. Assisting in organizing a follow-up program of cooperative education graduates.

A public relations program should be planned for the school and the community. Plans should be made to inform the public of the advantages, principles, and goals of the plan in order to get the support of the entire teaching staff, employers of the students, workers in the participating firms, and other members of the community.

November Through February

The teacher-coordinator appears before civic clubs, professional clubs, and school assemblies; writes newspaper releases for local and school newspapers; plans radio and TV appearances; and consults with guidance counselors, principals, labor leaders, and management leaders. The coordinator should always be careful to follow proper channels of communication.

The teacher-coordinator establishes and secures administrative approval of policies dealing with:

1. Coordination duties and time allotments—when, how much classroom teaching, responsibilities for adult education, etc.
2. Criteria for student selection.
3. Amount of credit for student participation in the plan.
4. Number of hours a student-learner should work.
5. Pay scale that should be expected or recommended.
6. Provision for extended contract for teacher-coordinator.

March Through June

The teacher-coordinator counsels and interviews prospective student-learners. These prospective student-learners may have been obtained from lists procured as a result of:

1. An assembly program presented by the teacher-coordinator.
2. Information and application forms filled out by interested students through counselors or other teachers.
3. A talk made by the teacher-coordinator in a homeroom or in regular classes.
4. Newspaper articles read by interested students.
5. Faculty and counselor recommendations.

After all the information on the prospective student-learners has been gathered, the teacher-coordinator should have a final personal interview with each student-learner, explaining the various facets of the cooperative occupational education plan and what role the student-learner is expected to perform.

Even though the teacher-coordinator should utilize all the resources available to help in the selection of student-learners, the final decision of a particular student's participation in the plan should be the teacher-coordinator's.

The teacher-coordinator visits the parents of prospective student-learners at their homes or asks the parents to visit the school. Through this type of visitation the coordinator is able:

1. To better understand the student and to utilize this understanding in the development of the student's program.
2. To interpret the program to the parents and to enlist their aid in making the program a success for their child.

Application forms for reimbursement of instructional costs and equipment should be made to the state department of education, division of vocational education, in June.

July

The teacher-coordinator selects and establishes business training stations on the basis of their educational value to cooperative occupational students. The coordinator should consider the following items in making the selection of training stations:

1. Opportunity for a variety of experiences.
2. Working conditions.
3. Reputation of business establishment.
4. Facilities and equipment.

5. Wages.
6. Accessibility of station to student-learner.
7. Type of supervision available.

The teacher-coordinator assists in structuring class schedules for student-learners. It is advisable, in scheduling student-learners, to arrange a dual-class schedule. With the assistance of the guidance counselor and the teacher-coordinator, each cooperative student-learner prepares a schedule of classes accommodating the required academic subjects, the related instruction, and the supervised laboratory work experience. Then, a second schedule of classes is prepared, omitting the cooperative occupational education plan. This system makes it possible to accommodate students who, for one reason or another, are not placed in a training station two or three weeks after school has started.

The teacher-coordinator arranges for related classroom facilities. This might involve providing for both a room and adequate equipment to allow desired related instruction to student-learners. The teacher-coordinator also should make plans to provide for a coordinator's office and a phone.

The teacher-coordinator requisitions textbooks, reference books, and supplies. Materials used should be current. There should be provision for a supplementary library of books, magazines, and business literature.

The teacher-coordinator should develop related instruction course outlines.

The teacher-coordinator should assess adult education and training needs, if any, for the coming year.

August

The teacher-coordinator:

1. Establishes additional training stations.
2. Checks established training stations to see if any changes have taken place.
3. Starts student-learner placements.

September

The teacher-coordinator:

1. Completes student-learner placements.
2. Starts related classroom instruction.

3. Continues public relations activities.
4. Initiates the student organization program. This is a very vital part of a total learning experience. People need to have friends, and they need to identify with a group whose members have common interests. Participating in this type of group activity provides for the development and exercise of student leadership.

The teacher-coordinator inaugurating a new plan will find it advisable to undertake systematically the steps outlined in this chapter. The established coordinator can use this list profitably to evaluate the present plan. The experienced coordinator taking over an established plan should use the list to review the plan and to look for aspects needing to be overhauled or redirected. Local situations always make some steps more important, relegate others to later disposition, and omit others entirely.

Once the plan has been approved and initiated, the focus shifts to the everyday activities of the coordination process.

Questions and Activities

1. Describe a community and the institutional plan that will use on-the-job experience as a learning laboratory. Plan a calendar of events that will meet this need to start a plan.
2. Assume the role of coordinator of a new plan. Describe the plan and the community. Then write your beliefs about what steps are needed and why. Make this a very personal letter to yourself.
3. Describe the reimbursement policies of your state for those instructional programs using the cooperative plan. Refer to Chapter 1 and indicate whether or not your state department of education will provide funds for plans using the work environment.
4. Using the community survey form included in the chapter, design a form that you believe would be appropriate for your community.
5. If an institution decides to open a new cooperative occupational education plan without the year's planning described in this chapter, what would its attack be? Formulate a plan or a calendar of events for a "crash" program.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

7

Coordinator Responsibilities at the Secondary Level

An important duty of a teacher-coordinator in a new plan is the recruitment of training stations.

KEY CONCEPT: ***Coordination*** *is the process of building and maintaining harmonious relationships in the school, with students, with employers, and with other individuals.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Define the coordination process.
- Understand the process whereby student-learners are interviewed, counseled, and admitted to the cooperative plan.
- Promote the cooperative plan of instruction.
- Understand the reimbursement policies of local and state education agencies.

KEY TERMS

news release

optional scheduling technique

public relations

reimbursement rate

In Chapter 6, the process of initiating a cooperative occupational education plan within the vocational curriculum was described. Now that the new offering has been approved, the teacher-coordinator begins to implement the plan as a part of an instructional program. The responsibilities are mainly the teacher-coordinator's. It can be a "lonely" job because the plan (strategy) of instruction is quite different from that used in other instructional areas of school. The teacher-coordinator is a different "breed of cat"; the role is quite different from that of most school personnel—the hours are different, the instruction extends beyond the four walls of the school, and the teacher-coordinator is intimately involved on a daily basis with the community in a learning partnership.

What Is Coordination?

Coordination is a process but the term "coordination" is defined differently by different people. A simple definition would be "the process of building and maintaining harmonious relationships among all groups involved in the cooperative plan, to the end that the student-learner receives the very best preparation for a chosen occupation."[1] By this definition, coordination would include *all* activities of the teacher-coordinator, including instruction within the classroom. On the other hand, some individuals use a narrow definition of "coordination," referring only to those activities that occur outside the school when visits are made to the training stations.

Using the Beaumont definition of "coordination," the major components of the process are:

1. Refining the student's career objective and determining needed learning experiences—the ***training plan***.
2. Developing the appropriate training station for the student.
3. Making arrangements with the training station for the placement and entering into a ***training agreement*** between the school and the training agency.
4. Orienting the training station sponsor.
5. Making evaluative visitations to the training station to determine if appropriate learning experiences are being provided.
6. Carrying out needed community public relations activities.
7. Relating training station experiences to in-school laboratory learning experiences.

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[1] This definition is attributed to John Beaumont while he was Chief of the Distributive Education Branch, U.S. Office of Education. The statement was made at a national conference, circa 1960.

GETTING A QUALITY JOB DONE: CRITERIA FOR JUDGING COORDINATOR - TRAINEE RATIO

The suggested coordination time is at least one-half hour per week per student-learner, all other things being equal.

More Time	Less Time	Variable
☐	☐	Scope of coordinator's responsibilities __ Social adjustment status of trainees __ Teaching responsibilities __ Counseling responsibilities __ Correlation of related classroom instruction with on-the-job training __ Administration duties, including preparation of required reports and records
☐	☐	Number of trainees in plan and special supportive services they require
☐	☐	Size of institution and number of people involved
☐	☐	Number of different occupational training plans coordinated
☐	☐	Geographic area (rural-urban) and travel required
☐	☐	Degree and diversity of disadvantagement in trainees
☐	☐	Degree to which the company takes over the training
☐	☐	Complexity of the occupation involved
☐	☐	Size of the specific occupational plan coordinated
☐	☐	Number of trainees actually placed in a given firm
☐	☐	Number of former trainees requiring follow-up services
☐	☐	Number of weeks in student-learner's cooperative experiences before a new training station must be developed
☐	☐	Difficulty of finding stations because of type of student-learners, type of local employers, condition of the labor market locally
☐	☐	Amount of job competition from high school and post-secondary cooperative plans
☐	☐	Newly installed cooperative plan requiring development time

FIG. 7-1

8. Relating to the student's home as a partner in the learning process.
9. Achieving terminal job placement after training or arranging for additional or continuing education.

ARRANGING THE TEACHER-COORDINATOR'S SCHEDULE

How much time during the school week and year does the teacher-coordinator of a cooperative occupational education plan need to do an effective job? The answer of course lies in both a description of the range of responsibilities and the personal effectiveness in getting the job done. The question of assigning load time is a difficult one and is often complicated by teacher contracts in educational institutions that set forth definitions of teaching time. And, in the contemporary scene of public education, the tendency of educational administrators and boards to define faculty productivity in terms of student credit-hours (SCH) presents a most difficult factor in load calculations, since a lecture of one hour for 30 or 300 represents a definable number of student clock - hours of instruction, while the coordination visit of an hour in behalf of one student represents but one clock - hour of instruction.

Regardless of these present problems, the administrator who understands the cooperative occupational education plan will recognize the need of the coordinator for one-half hour per student per week for coordination activities (see Figure 7-1). Teaching, counseling, and other assigned duties are to be added on. In other words—30 students equals 15 hours of coordination time each week if each student-learner is to be accorded the professional practice needed. This rule-of-thumb is the result of experience, and most local administrators and state supervisors who have carefully analyzed coordination activities would agree with it. More substantive evidence comes from the Uthe-Schroeder study of cooperative office education in Michigan high schools. It corroborates this as actual practice.[2] The research in 178 high schools revealed that the average coordination time per week during usual school hours was between 11 and 15. However, this did not take into account the time given coordinators who were on extended day contracts or those on extended year contracts of 11 months. Such hours should be taken into consideration as coordination time. Unfortunately, the study cited also found that almost a third of the coordinators were struggling with less than 10 hours allotted per week for coordination.[3] One can only wonder how long a classroom teacher can maintain what amounts to almost a double load of teaching and coordination. In the 1980's there is a new thrust for using the cooperative plan. Adequate coordination time for the teacher-coordinator continues to be a vital factor for developing and maintaining a quality educational experience for students under the plan.

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[2] Elaine F. Uthe and Betty L. Schroeder, *The Status of Cooperative Office Education Programs in Michigan*, East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1969.

[3] *Ibid.*

The school administrator must understand that coordination time does not fit the customary definition of the school day or year. Coordination activities involve not only school personnel but also business and industrial leaders. The employer works evenings, Saturdays, and even Sundays. The coordinator meets these people on their schedule, not the school's. An empathetic coordinator knows that in some firms or agencies, lunch is not the time for rapport. At other times it may be just before 5 o'clock in the afternoon. In some places employers do not wish to be bothered in the early morning when the operation is getting under way or during the closing hours. Some firms now operate on an almost around-the-clock schedule, and the coordinator must be there when the training sponsor or supervisor is present. This may mean the night shift, or even the weekend. The point to be made is that the coordinator must be available when the job sponsor is available. Businesspersons operate at hours that are not necessarily attune to the traditional school-day schedule. If teacher-coordinators are to be the school's liaison with the community, they must operate by the community's schedule; a wise administrator understands this in determining both load and work schedule.

There is very little hard data on where cooperative occupational education is offered in the secondary schools. It is popularly assumed that the plans are generally found largely in schools with over 1,000 enrollment and in communities where sufficient business training opportunities exist. One study in a large state with a diversity of population areas and economic bases may be a clue.[4] Uthe reported that in Michigan the cooperative office education plans (178) were found in every size community. Of the total, 21 percent were in communities under 10,000, 42 percent in areas between 10,000 and 100,000, and 47 percent in cities of more than that size. If the data are representative of these situations in other states, it can be said that cooperative plans should be found in any size community. But the Uthe study reveals an anomaly when size of school is determined. Less than 10 percent of the plans were to be found in high schools with a grade 9–12 enrollment of less than 550. From this it may be concluded that school size rather than community population is the factor most relevant to operation of a cooperative business education plan. This fact is disturbing because it is the small high school that usually has the least diversified array of occupational curricula. Without the facilities, the school population, or the financial resources to support an in-school vocational preparation program, the cooperative plan could be the instructional plan to fill the void.

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[4] *Ibid.*

Teacher-Coordination Activities Before Classroom Instruction Begins

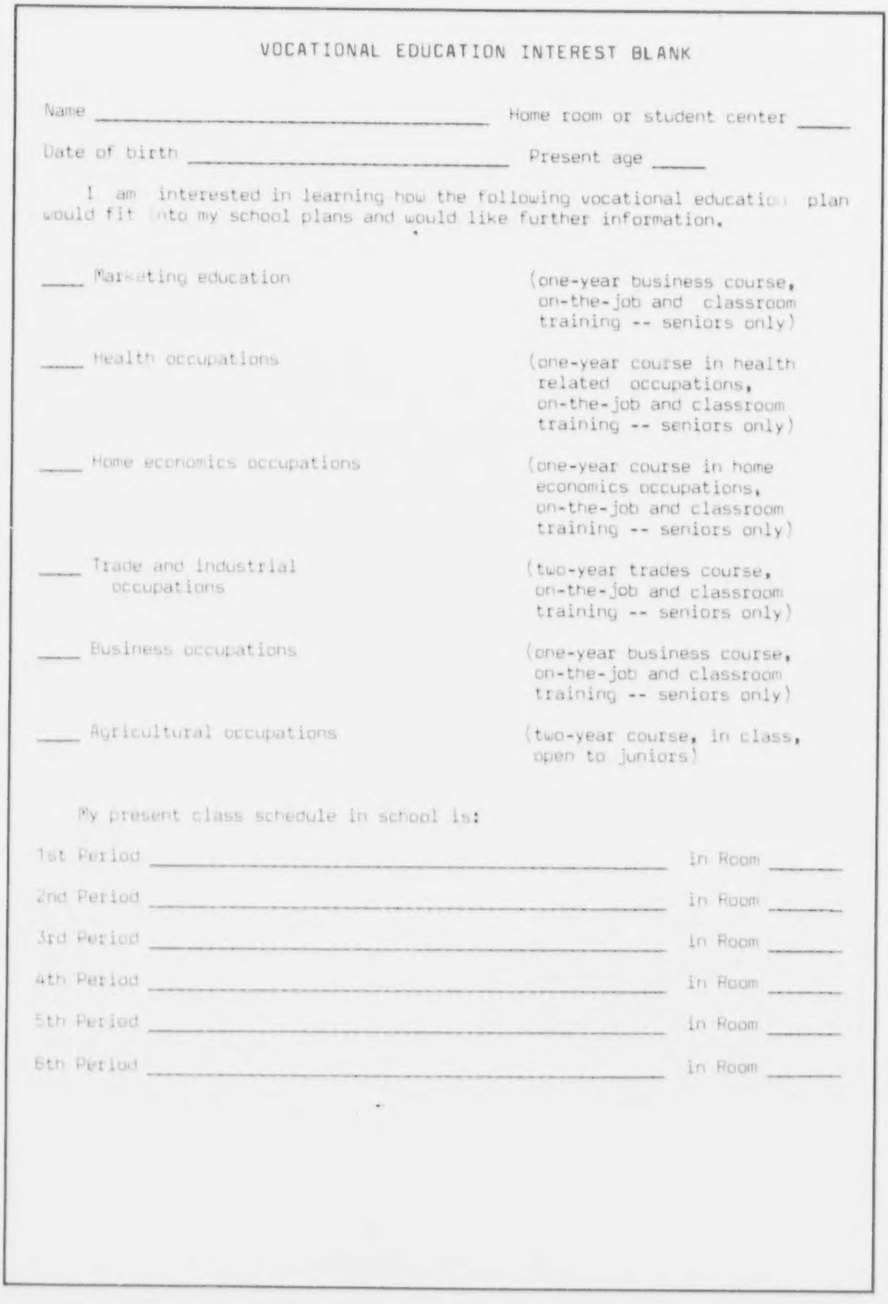
Major planning and organizational activities of the teacher-coordinator before the classroom and job training begin are:

1. Disseminating information to school personnel, guidance counselors, staff, students, and parents—building the image.
2. Making promotional contacts in the community for training stations.
3. Counseling, interviewing, and selecting prospective student-learners.
4. Assisting in arranging class schedules, including related instruction periods.
5. Arranging for related classroom facilities, including furniture and fixtures.
6. Selecting and requisitioning textbooks, reference books, and supplies.

CREATING IMAGE AND INTEREST WITHIN THE SCHOOL

Through initiative and ingenuity, the teacher-coordinator must obtain school staff and student body understanding of the cooperative occupational education plan. Information sheets and application blanks are left in each counselor's office to be made available to interested students. The educational aspects of the training plan are stressed, indicating that dependability, employability, and the ability to benefit from the training are primary requisites for prospective student-learners. In plans where other courses are prerequisites, the counselor should understand the prerequisite curriculum. Short talks before home room groups or other classes, articles in the school newspaper, bulletin board displays, corridor displays, and assembly programs have been effective means of disseminating information and creating an image. In some schools it is possible administratively to call student assemblies of certain classes, perhaps the junior class, to present a short explanation of each vocational education program. At such an assembly the use of a form similar to Figure 7-2 aids in getting a list of possible interested students.

It is said, and backed up by several master's degree studies, that after the first year the students are the best salespersons for quality education. The students, and the vocational student organization chapter, should have discussed



VOCATIONAL EDUCATION INTEREST BLANK

Name ______________________ Home room or student center _____

Date of birth ______________________ Present age _____

I am interested in learning how the following vocational education plan would fit into my school plans and would like further information.

____ Marketing education	(one-year business course, on-the-job and classroom training -- seniors only)
____ Health occupations	(one-year course in health related occupations, on-the-job and classroom training -- seniors only)
____ Home economics occupations	(one-year course in home economics occupations, on-the-job and classroom training -- seniors only)
____ Trade and industrial occupations	(two-year trades course, on-the-job and classroom training -- seniors only)
____ Business occupations	(one-year business course, on-the-job and classroom training -- seniors only)
____ Agricultural occupations	(two-year course, in class, open to juniors)

My present class schedule in school is:

1st Period ______________________ in Room _______

2nd Period ______________________ in Room _______

3rd Period ______________________ in Room _______

4th Period ______________________ in Room _______

5th Period ______________________ in Room _______

6th Period ______________________ in Room _______

FIG. 7-2

with the coordinator about how they might best answer questions about their experiences. They can be encouraged to put up displays of their work. Awards they win in club competition should be given school-wide publicity. Their occupational certificates can be presented at the annual school awards ceremony, just as those for academic honors. Another image builder is the classroom, for the laboratory-like facility and its display will tell the story of the effective and relevant instruction that takes placed there.

Students can also tell their story by producing a brief sound–slide presentation of their experiences or by producing a descriptive brochure in cooperation with the journalism class. Image is built by a continuing series of communication devices with the school publics.

INTERVIEWING, COUNSELING, AND ADMITTING STUDENT-LEARNERS

The first task of the coordinator before admitting is recruiting. At times, this term, "recruiting," seems to be one that some coordinators are reluctant to accept; yet, they have only to look around their school to find the band director recruiting, the coaches recruiting, and many academic teachers recruiting. The term means in each case that educators are trying to find those students who can profit from what their instruction has to offer. As in all selling situations, prospects must be made aware of their needs and be convinced that the plan meets those needs. The vocational educator must be aware of, and react to, the fact that the offerings may not be well known or may be in conflict with the many values and pressures that the student feels from peer groups and parents. If recruiting is successful, the coordinator begins the process of interviewing, counseling, and admitting by remembering and practicing the dictum that vocational instruction is "for those who need it, want it, and can profit from it."

Practicing coordinators report that there are four primary factors in the assessment of a student's potential for profiting from a specialized cooperative occupational education plan, such as that of business occupations. Michigan coordinators in that field (178) rated as almost equal in importance the following: personal interview with coordinator, interest in the plan, prior attendance record, and recommendations by teachers of skill subjects.[3]

Guidance counselors and other teachers may assist in refining the list and in adding to it prospective student-learners through their student interviews at programming time. The finest working relationship within a school results when all likely prospects are referred to the teacher-coordinator for final interview and for the final decision on a particular student's participation in the plan.[6]

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[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 9–22.

A list of interested students can be refined first by checking school records and by checking with other teachers and then by conducting personal interviews of those who remain on the list after matters of appropriate age, sincerity of purpose, and possibility of class scheduling have been determined.

Counseling of prospective student-learners begins with reviewing the information on applications from prospective student-learners, supplemented by information gathered, with the student's permission, from the school records relative to aptitude, interest, and intelligence test scores. If adequate test information is not available, appropriate tests may be administered. Some teacher-coordinators work with the local state employment service, using a series of tests appropriate to the particular occupation.

During the interview with a student, the teacher-coordinator attempts to make certain the student understands the difference between the work experience (approach) plan and the cooperative occupational education plan (an educational plan preparing students for careers). Although all the students will not have had adequate information at hand to decide on careers or will not be able to decide on specific career objectives until after a preparatory course or brief on-the-job experience, the career approach seems most useful. Otherwise, a cooperative plan may become filled with job seekers who only wish to earn extra money or to get out of school or are "dumped in" because no one else wishes them in the classroom.

The list of prospects should be narrowed to student-learners who are employable.[7] The number of student-learners should conform to reasonable limits determined by school policy, physical facilities and equipment, and availability of training stations. Most programs have 15 to 30 students; 22 is the real maximum for individualizing instruction. The exact number depends upon the amount of coordination time the coordinator has, the number of other courses taught, and the class size in a district wherein teachers have a negotiated contract.

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[6] Suggested minimum standards for student-learners in trade and industrial occupations are set forth in Chapter 22; for student-learners in business occupations, in Chapter 18; for student-learners in marketing education, in Chapter 21; and for student-learners in other cooperative plans, in Chapters 17, 19, and 20.

[7] The word "acceptable" is used here to mean meeting the criteria of the coordinator and the advisory committee. There is some evidence in research studies that in prior years only students with above-average grade averages were accepted. In fact, coordinators were obviously accepting only students with an above "C" average. What is more important than grades is the capacity and motivation to profit from the instruction. There is benefit to the student if the cooperative plan meets the individual needs and if the employer finds the person employable—there is no merit in achieving for the cooperative plan by only those who are superior. Emphasis on mainstreaming students who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged challenges the coordinator to seek out a wide range of training stations to accommodate a wide range of student capabilities.

SETTING UP INTERVIEWS OF PROSPECTIVE STUDENT-LEARNERS BY PROSPECTIVE EMPLOYERS

Final selection of student-learners as employees is really made by the participating employers, not by the coordinator. But the coordinator must decide whether more students are to be sent for an interview with each employer and for each training station available, and which student or students are to be sent. Several methods of placement are possible. These are:

1. All interested student-learners are allowed to apply at a specific training station.
2. One student is selected and then others are successively chosen if the first one is not hired.
3. Several students are sent for an interview.
4. The students are allowed to find their own jobs, subject to the coordinator's approval.

If the career objectives of the student-learners have been well defined by the teacher-coordinator, the first method allows for the most natural competitive employment situation and leaves the final choice with the employer. In the second case, the coordinator is almost choosing a particular student-learner for a specific training station, even though the employer has the option of not selecting the student who comes for the interview. In the third, case, where several are sent for an interview without much effort having been made to match career objectives to opportunities offered in established training stations, one is opening up the possibility of many adjustments and perhaps training station changes early in the school year. The weakest method is the last one, where students are allowed to find their own jobs. This is usually an indication that the coordinator has made little or no attempt to establish training stations for the purpose of matching students to training opportunities. Programs attempting to operate in this manner are doomed to difficulties and failure and often become, in reality, not cooperative plans, but just plain work experience plans.

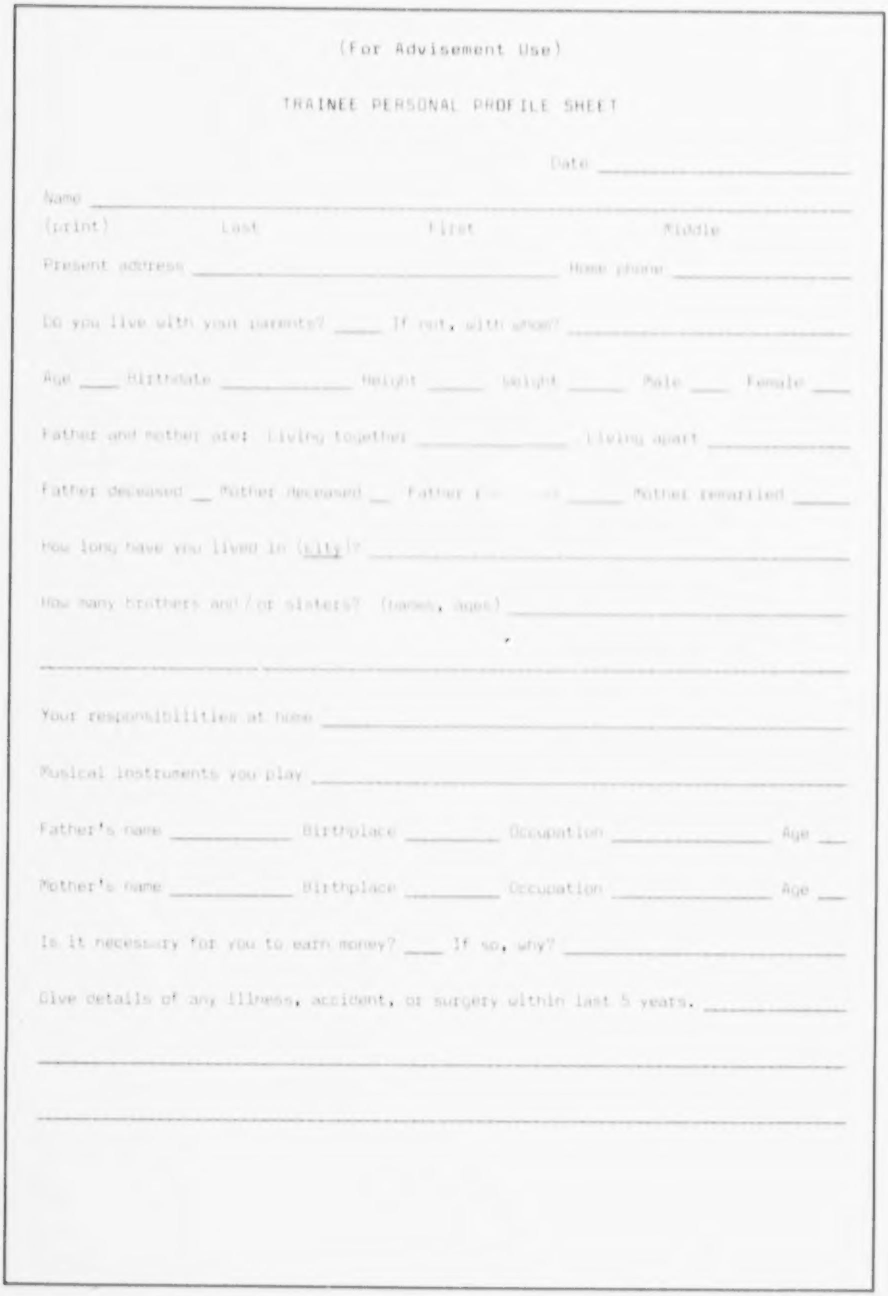
All students should be trained in employability skills, specifically in interview techniques, during a preschool orientation period, during the first week of school, during the prerequisite course, or during a spring orientation program. Instruction may be given to the class as a whole or to each student individually. Interview training should include the following information: when and where to report for the interview, how to develop a written statement of qualifications for the position, how to answer the kinds of questions that employers usually ask, how to fill out written applications, and what to do following the interview. Role-playing practice interviews should be undertaken. The teacher-coordinator should arrange and schedule the employment interviews, completing follow-ups after the interviews. Student-learners should go to interviews and should be assigned to training stations before school opens or as soon as possible after it opens.

The process of attracting, interviewing, counseling, and admitting students to the cooperative plan should include several components. As a practical manner, Figures 7-3 and 7-4 illustrate two activities that will assist in getting the job done—completing the process. Asking each student who has indicated an interest in the program to complete a personal profile can be very helpful to the coordinator in better knowing the student. Letters of recommendation from other teachers, counselors and former employers can be valuable in providing additional information about the student's strengths and weaknesses. The steps used in the process need to be an integrated sequence of activities.

ARRANGING CLASSROOM SCHEDULES AND RELATED CLASS INSTRUCTION

The use of the computer in school scheduling of offerings has been helpful in providing greater flexibility and response to student choice. But, even with this aid, coordinators should be cognizant of the need to make direct input into the prescheduling process where departmental offerings are proposed and students needs reviewed. Coordinators need to work closely with the scheduling officer (registrar) to be sure sections of courses are available to the trainees and to stress the trainees' scheduling limitations because of the timing of on-the-job laboratory hours and requirements for related instruction and supplementary courses. Coordinators should also be sure that their own teaching schedules allow them prime time for out-of-school coordination activities. These requirements should be established early with the administration as a matter of agreement regarding the coordinator's responsibilities.

The registrar should be asked to give consideration to reserving sections of required courses, such as government and history, for the cooperative students. This is particularly important in small schools with limited offerings and teacher assignment flexibility or where teacher seniority is a vital factor in scheduling. The related class deserves special scheduling attention, since it is the primary source of instruction for the student's career development and because it requires priority for assignment of specialized instructional space. Scheduling the related class the last period(s) before the training station hours facilitates two quality conditions: (1) field observations are benefited because students do not have to waste travel time returning to the school and



(For Advisement Use)

TRAINEE PERSONAL PROFILE SHEET

Date ______________

Name ____
(print) Last First Middle

Present address ______________________ Home phone __________

Do you live with your parents? ____ If not, with whom? ______________

Age ___ Birthdate ________ Height _____ Weight _____ Male ___ Female ___

Father and mother are: Living together __________ Living apart ________

Father deceased __ Mother deceased __ Father remarried _____ Mother remarried _____

How long have you lived in (city)? ______________________

How many brothers and / or sisters? (names, ages) ______________

____

Your responsibilities at home ______________________

Musical instruments you play ______________________

Father's name ________ Birthplace ______ Occupation __________ Age __

Mother's name ________ Birthplace ______ Occupation __________ Age __

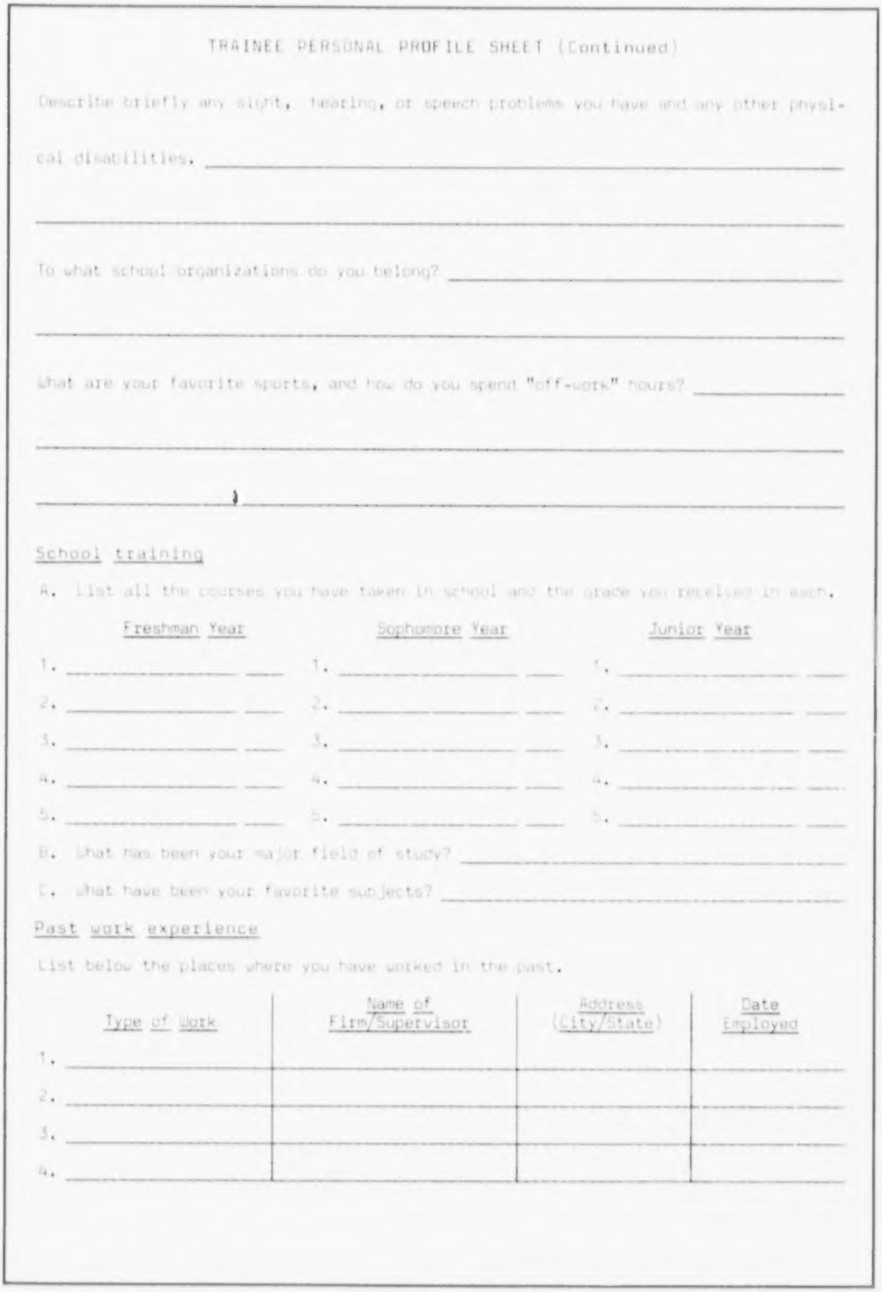
Is it necessary for you to earn money? ___ If so, why? ______________

Give details of any illness, accident, or surgery within last 5 years. ________

____

____

FIG. 7-3



TRAINEE PERSONAL PROFILE SHEET (Continued)

Describe briefly any sight, hearing, or speech problems you have and any other physical disabilities. ______________________________

____

To what school organizations do you belong? ______________________________

____

What are your favorite sports, and how do you spend "off-work" hours? ______________________________

____

____

School training

A. List all the courses you have taken in school and the grade you received in each.

Freshman Year	Sophomore Year	Junior Year
1. ____________ ___	1. ____________ ___	1. ____________ ___
2. ____________ ___	2. ____________ ___	2. ____________ ___
3. ____________ ___	3. ____________ ___	3. ____________ ___
4. ____________ ___	4. ____________ ___	4. ____________ ___
5. ____________ ___	5. ____________ ___	5. ____________ ___

B. What has been your major field of study? ______________________________

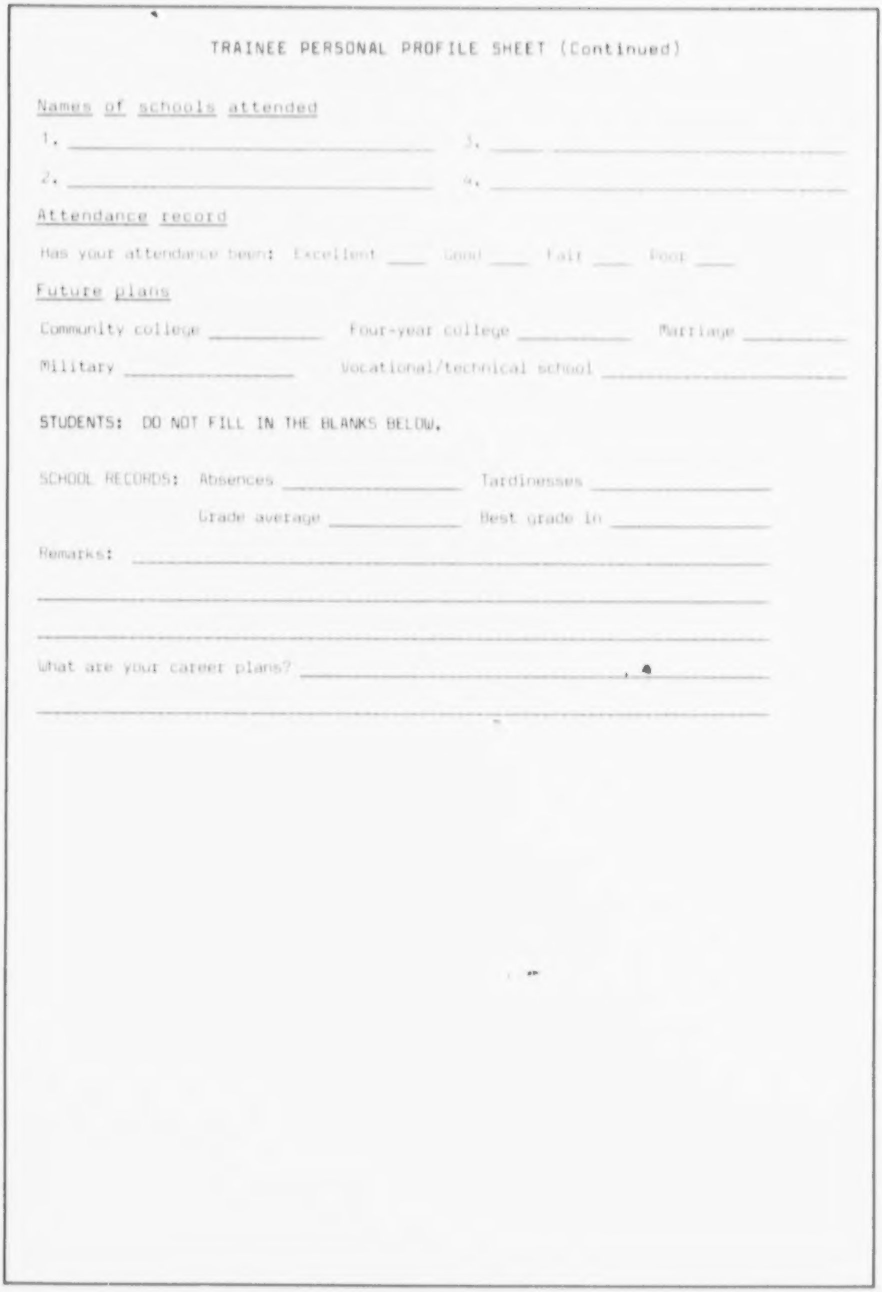
C. What have been your favorite subjects? ______________________________

Past work experience

List below the places where you have worked in the past.

Type of Work	Name of Firm/Supervisor	Address (City/State)	Date Employed
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

FIG. 7-3 (Continued)



TRAINEE PERSONAL PROFILE SHEET (Continued)

Names of schools attended

1. ______________________ 3. ______________________

2. ______________________ 4. ______________________

Attendance record

Has your attendance been: Excellent ___ Good ___ Fair ___ Poor ___

Future plans

Community college ________ Four-year college ________ Marriage ________

Military ________ Vocational/technical school ____________

STUDENTS: DO NOT FILL IN THE BLANKS BELOW.

SCHOOL RECORDS: Absences ____________ Tardinesses ____________

Grade average __________ Best grade in ____________

Remarks: ____

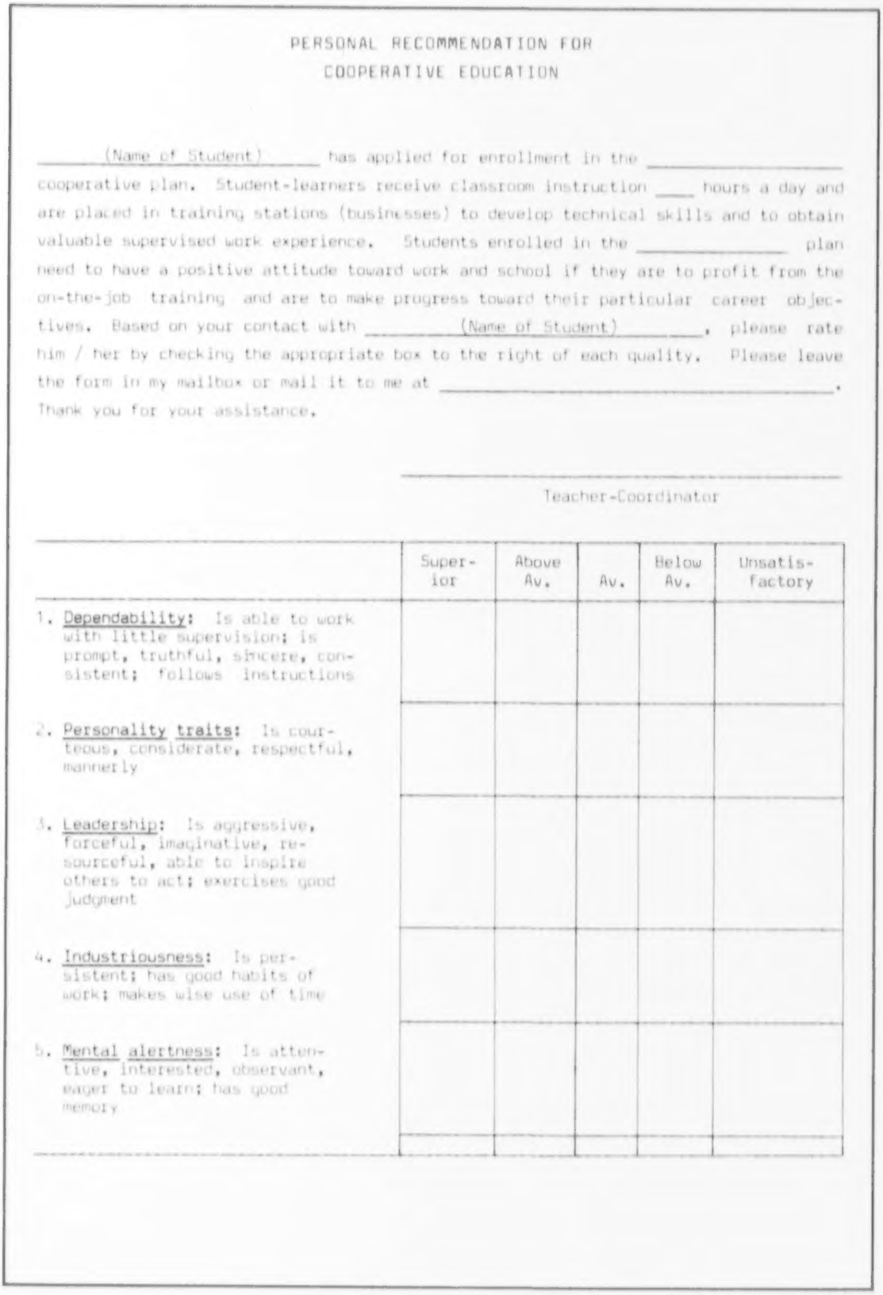
____

____

What are your career plans? ______________________________

____

FIG. 7-3 (Continued)



PERSONAL RECOMMENDATION FOR
COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

_____(Name of Student)_____ has applied for enrollment in the ________________ cooperative plan. Student-learners receive classroom instruction ____ hours a day and are placed in training stations (businesses) to develop technical skills and to obtain valuable supervised work experience. Students enrolled in the ______________ plan need to have a positive attitude toward work and school if they are to profit from the on-the-job training and are to make progress toward their particular career objectives. Based on your contact with _______(Name of Student)_______, please rate him / her by checking the appropriate box to the right of each quality. Please leave the form in my mailbox or mail it to me at ________________________________. Thank you for your assistance.

____
Teacher-Coordinator

	Superior	Above Av.	Av.	Below Av.	Unsatisfactory
1. **Dependability:** Is able to work with little supervision; is prompt, truthful, sincere, consistent; follows instructions					
2. **Personality traits:** Is courteous, considerate, respectful, mannerly					
3. **Leadership:** Is aggressive, forceful, imaginative, resourceful, able to inspire others to act; exercises good judgment					
4. **Industriousness:** Is persistent; has good habits of work; makes wise use of time					
5. **Mental alertness:** Is attentive, interested, observant, eager to learn; has good memory					

FIG. 7-4

PERSONAL RECOMMENDATION FOR
COOPERATIVE EDUCATION (Continued)

	Superior	Above Av.	Av.	Below Av.	Unsatisfactory
6. Thoroughness: Is accurate, careful; completes work					
7. Personal appearance and grooming: Is clean; is not offensive; has neat and orderly appearance; is poised					
8. Ability to get along with others: Is tactful, friendly, cooperative; has sense of humor					
9. Social habits: Has positive attitude; exercises self-control; is honest; is not argumentative or boisterous					

Employability: If you were an employer or a job supervisor, would you want this student working for you? Explain. ______________________
____

Are you willing to have this student represent the school on the job in a local business? Explain. ______________________
____

Comments: ____
____
____

FIG. 7-4 (Continued)

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
TEST RESULTS

Name ______________________ Address ______________________

Date of Tests ______________ Telephone ____________

Kuder Preference Record

Vocational Interests	Score Attained	Percentile

Occupational Classification	Intelligence		Verbal Ability		Numerical Ability		Clerical Ability	
	Passing Score	Score	Passing Score	Score	Passing Score	Score	Passing Score	Score
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								

FIG. 7-5

(2) trainees may be released from related instruction in order to profit from extra laboratory experiences, particularly during periods of peak business activity or when a special training session is available within the firm.

Registrars should be aware of the value of what is called the **optional scheduling technique** for the cooperative student-learner. A second schedule of classes is prepared and followed; the cooperative plan related courses are omitted in favor of other courses. This optional plan is especially valuable in situations where: (1) the training station placements are scarce and trainees may not be placed until well after classes begin and (2) there is a question of a student's employability, and several interviews and after school try-outs with prospective training stations may be needed. The optional scheduling system makes it possible to leave in the alternate academic program those student-learners who have not been placed in training stations by the opening of classes in the fall. As soon as a suitable training station placement has been arranged, a student switches to the cooperative class schedule without problem. Those who have not been appropriately placed within a reasonable time after school starts (perhaps three weeks) continue in the alternate academic schedule of classes. It is difficult to transfer a student from a cooperative class to another class after school starts, but seldom will a teacher object to giving up a student from class within a reasonable length of time after classes begin.

OBTAINING AN APPROPRIATE FACILITY

The in-school instruction phase of the cooperative plan is a laboratory-type situation, with emphasis on individualized instruction, individual study, and participatory methods. As such, the instruction requires facilities appropriate not only to this form of instruction but also to the function of the coordinator as a counselor and part-time administrator. The classroom and a private office adjacent are requisites to quality performance of these functions.

The exact specification of the laboratory is not possible here, since it depends upon the instructional demands of the occupational area involved. For example, a business occupations program demands a simulated office environment and considerable space for office equipment. Likewise, the marketing curriculum demands space and equipment appropriate to the marketing functions, the cooperative industrial education curriculum needs a related classroom and shop space, and so on. What is required is adequate table space for group discussion, filing and shelving for the host of reference materials needed for individual study, media for individualized instruction, filing space for the student study materials and records, private telephone service, and counseling areas offering privacy.

Creating specialized space of the type suggested may seem beyond the means of many schools. However, the administration should understand that this space can be used ideally for other laboratory classes and is well suited to evening adult instruction and human resource contract courses after school.

SELECTING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND MEDIA

Because the cooperative plan at the secondary level involves employed youth who put into practice the theory of the classroom and study to meet their individual objectives, the instructional materials and media become most important. An overhead projector is a "must" to assist with group discussion and learnings; individual study media such as carrels must be accessible. A substantial supply of reference materials is needed to facilitate individual study and small group projects. Because the instruction is correlated with contemporary business and industrial practice, the materials must be up-to-date and consist not only of textbooks but also of technical manuals, handbooks, trade and professional magazines, and business literature. Students will need a project manual of some type as well as one or more sets of texts basic to the field.

The coordinator should consider the acquisitions program over a five-year period and get administrative approval for that time. Using this plan as a priority, a budget of $20 to $25 per student will enable a program to begin if the annual budget thereafter for five years averages from $15 to $20. Coordinators should consistently solicit from employers their technical literature, which can sometimes be classified as tax-free donations. Cooperative students should be encouraged to use their student organization as a source of funds for providing supplementary materials and media.

The Initial Promotion and Community Contact Campaign

The cooperative plan of instruction which uses the community as an instructional laboratory is still a relatively new idea in some communities. An initial promotion and publicity campaign of high impact and high intensity is vital. The idea must be sold quickly, and to the right publics. The coordinator who is skilled in **public relations** knows that an effective campaign requires having "a nose for news," an ability to recognize the opinion leaders in the community, a talent for knowing whose values to seek to supplement, and the tenacity for carrying through ideas by gaining access to the best media.

Before classroom instruction starts, there are several major promotional avenues that need to be utilized. The first is informal selling through everyday living.

"GETTING AROUND"

Educators who have something to sell to the community are prone to emulate business and to rely heavily on public relations efforts through the printed or visual media or through addresses to large groups. Certainly these mass efforts are economical in terms of time, energy, and cost. But they are, as the media describe them, "shotgun" approaches and are suited mainly to disseminating the over-all concept of what the school is trying to do.

The real task of teacher-coordinators is "getting around"—calling upon people and transmitting the message in a face-to-face and one-to-one situation. Coordinators do this not only through scheduled appointments but also through their personal life activities—when they grocery shop, they talk to the store manager; when they get their teeth cleaned, they sell the dentist; when they fill the car with gasoline, they talk about the school's new plan with the station manager; when they socialize, they sell the parents and the businesspersons, who also may be their friends. This informal approach may seem beyond a coordinator's responsibilities and the contractual work day, but successful coordinators believe in the plan's product, in what the school is doing for students, and in the benefits to the community. To support these beliefs, they use the informal communications network that exists in every community.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE MEETINGS

The teacher-coordinator plans the agenda for advisory committee meetings with the committee chairperson. Successful meetings are streamlined to the extent that the business is limited to one hour. The mailing of the agenda to committee members in advance of the meeting expedites accomplishment at sessions. It is advisable to select a time when businesspersons can free themselves from obligations most readily. Short noon luncheon meetings are popular, although in some communities "early-bird" breakfasts are used so that busy days can be avoided.

TALKS WITH COMMUNITY GROUPS

Scheduled appearances before major civic groups and those professional groups directly related to the coordinator's program provide opportunities to create understanding of a new program during its organization stages. Presentations ranging in length from a 5-minute announcement to a 20-minute slide presentation or videotape are proving effective. Visuals in the form of flannelboard presentations, posters, chalkboard and overhead projector presentations, and role-playing skits are received well.

PRESS, RADIO, AND TV

Every opportunity utilized for telling the story of cooperative education assists in reaching the many segments of the public served by such a plan. Newspapers are receptive to carefully planned, well-written articles. The writer of a **news release** is well advised to structure the article around answering the five main questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? An acceptable form is illustrated in Figure 7-6. Copy sent to an editor is usually triple spaced to facilitate easy editing and to provide room for additions and/or corrections.

Radio and television stations provide program time free of charge for certain civic presentations. Panel discussions, role-playing skits, demonstrations, and interviews based on cooperative education qualify for this free time. National Education Week, Careers in Retailing Week, National Secretaries Week, and Vocational Education Week are examples of appropriate times, although other times during the school year may be used.

Members of the press are cooperative if a few fundamental guidelines are followed by the person contacting them. A publicity handbook[8] published by the Sperry Hutchinson Company years ago lists several basic suggestions still practical for those who deal with local media.

1. Have only one person from a particular phase of cooperative education contact the news media.
2. Quickly establish personal contact with the right persons at each newspaper and each radio and television station in the area.
3. Write everything down so details are not forgotten.
4. Meet every deadline promptly.
5. Type news releases and send accurate original copies.
6. Check dates, names, and places before copy is sent in.
7. Give credit where credit is due.
8. Avoid using the pressure of friendship or business connections to get a story released.
9. Appreciate the time and space given cooperative education by the media.

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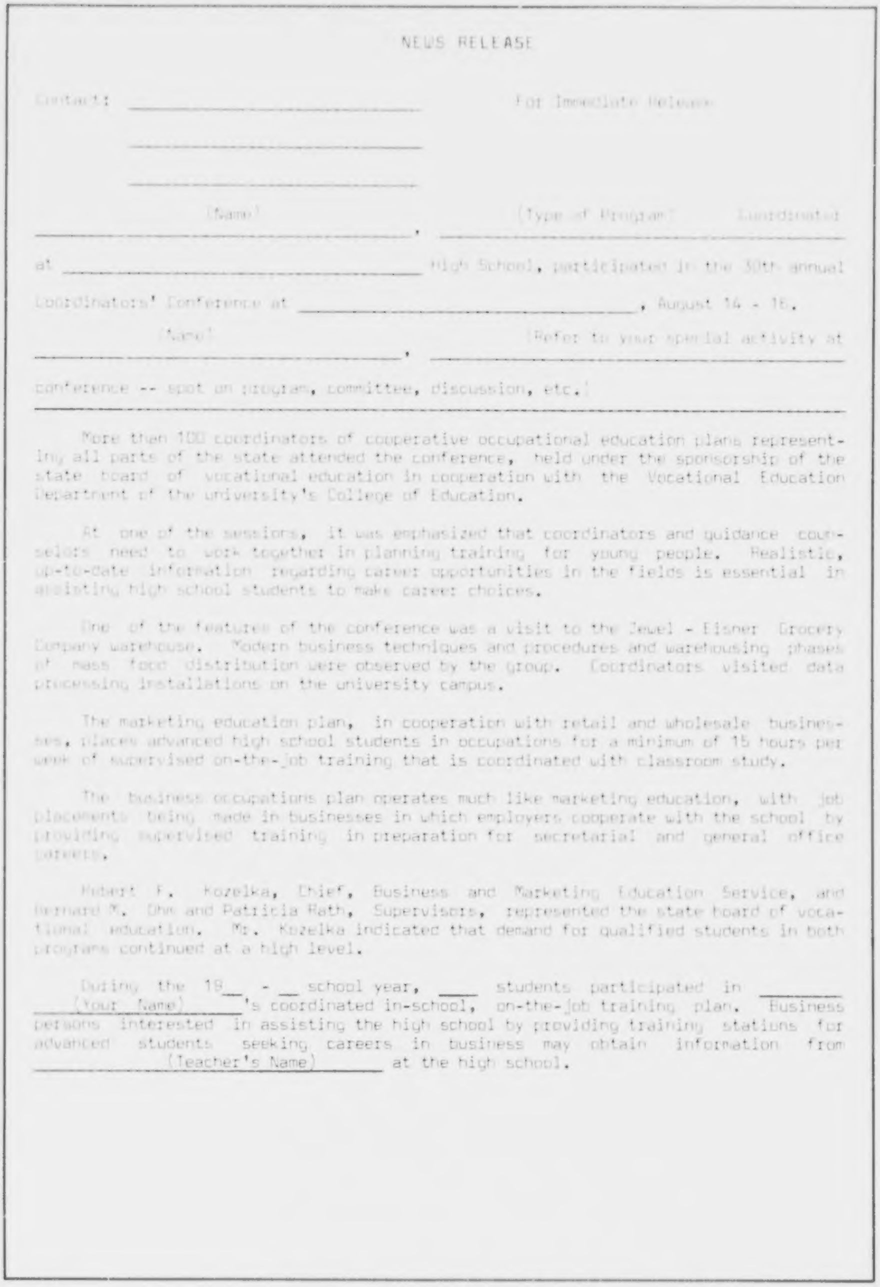
[8] *Publicity Handbook: A Guide for Publicity Chairmen.* Chicago: Sperry Hutchinson Company, Consumer Information Service, 1966.



NEWS RELEASE

Contact: ______________________ For Immediate Release

____

____

(Name) (Type of Program) Coordinated

______________________, ______________________

at ______________________ High School, participated in the 30th annual

Coordinators' Conference at ______________________, August 14 - 16.

(Name) (Refer to your special activity at

______________________, ______________________

conference -- spot on program, committee, discussion, etc.)

More than 100 coordinators of cooperative occupational education plans representing all parts of the state attended the conference, held under the sponsorship of the state board of vocational education in cooperation with the Vocational Education Department of the university's College of Education.

At one of the sessions, it was emphasized that coordinators and guidance counselors need to work together in planning training for young people. Realistic, up-to-date information regarding career opportunities in the fields is essential in assisting high school students to make career choices.

One of the features of the conference was a visit to the Jewel - Eisner Grocery Company warehouse. Modern business techniques and procedures and warehousing phases of mass food distribution were observed by the group. Coordinators visited data processing installations on the university campus.

The marketing education plan, in cooperation with retail and wholesale businesses, places advanced high school students in occupations for a minimum of 15 hours per week of supervised on-the-job training that is coordinated with classroom study.

The business occupations plan operates much like marketing education, with job placements being made in businesses in which employers cooperate with the school by providing supervised training in preparation for secretarial and general office careers.

Robert F. Kozelka, Chief, Business and Marketing Education Service, and Bernard M. Ohm and Patricia Rath, Supervisors, represented the state board of vocational education. Mr. Kozelka indicated that demand for qualified students in both programs continued at a high level.

During the 19__ - __ school year, ____ students participated in ________ (Your Name) ________'s coordinated in-school, on-the-job training plan. Business persons interested in assisting the high school by providing training stations for advanced students seeking careers in business may obtain information from ______________ (Teacher's Name) ______________ at the high school.

FIG 7-6

CASE-IN-POINT

Brian Roberts is the agricultural teacher-coordinator for his local high school. While in college, Brian took a journalism course in news writing. When Brian began his job, he soon started applying theory to practice.

Using the techniques learned in class, Brian got into the habit of preparing news releases for every newsworthy event relating to his program. Of course, the FFA chapter he advised was often the focal point of a release. Other ideas for releases came from advisory committee meetings, employer-employee social functions, curriculum changes, student success stories, Vocational Education Week, and many others. It was not unusual for Brian to write 20 to 35 news releases per year.

One tip Brian learned early was never to give himself credit or play up the teacher-coordinator role. If the program is successful, that fact speaks for itself. In Brian's case, the publicity he generated for his program paid off. The local Optimist Club chose his FFA chapter as the Student Organization of the Year for his community. The Optimist Club gave a special banquet for his students and their parents and presented the chapter with a plaque and a $250 check to defray costs to the FFA state conference.

10. Invite members of the press as guests to special functions. Don't ask them to buy tickets.

Understanding Reimbursement Policies

Most state departments of vocational education reimburse the local districts at the end of the fiscal year on the basis of the teacher's salary (that part of the contract time of the teacher-coordinator devoted to related classroom instruction and coordination), the coordinator's approved travel expenses, and, in some cases, certain types of equipment.

For example, let us assume a situation in which the state department of vocational education maintains a 40 percent **reimbursement rate**. At Central High School the marketing education teacher-coordinator has three years' experience and the following schedule: one period teaching general business, two periods for the marketing education related class, and three periods for coordination. His salary is $30,000. Reimbursement is calculated as follows:

1. Time for vocational instruction is five periods out of six. Thus, five-sixths of his salary is eligible for reimbursement.
2. $30,000 x five-sixths is $25,000. To this eligible amount, the state reimbursement rate of 40 percent is applied.
3. $25,000 x 40 percent is $10,000, which is the amount the school district will get back from the state.[9]

State reimbursement policies vary considerably among states, and some use what is known as project funding. In this system some local programs are called "special projects" because they meet a designated need and their costs are reimbused as high as 75 to 100 percent of the local cost. In other states a minimum foundation payment per student or per program is paid. The coordinator should find out from the state department the reimbursement policies of vocational education since the school's administration will expect the coordinator to be informed. And the community and employers will often ask questions about the use of federal and state funds which the coordinator is expected to answer.

State funds may be used in some cases for other expenses, such as travel of the coordinator in the local area, reimbursement for professional conferences and meetings approved by the state, classroom instructional materials, and classroom equipment. Since state policies differ, the coordinator should check carefully and often because rules change and fund availability differs from year to year.

Questions and Activities

1. Describe a cooperative plan of instruction in terms of its goals, its institutional setting, and the community it serves. For this situation, write the criteria to be used in assisting students in deciding to enroll in the plan.
2. For the plan of instruction described in question 1, what would be your request for adequate facilities and materials? Describe the space and list the materials for the first year, or write a recommendation for a change in an on-going plan you have inherited.
3. Draft a letter of invitation to potential steering committee members. Prepare the draft for your superintendent's signature.
4. Prepare an agenda for an advisory committee that is meeting in two months.

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[9] In this example, travel costs and other items were not included, in order to simplify the calculation. Some states reimburse on a unit basis regardless of costs. In other states, reimbursement is on a formula basis that takes into account items such as the per capita income of the district and the number of student contact hours.

5. List ways teacher-coordinators may cooperate with school guidance personnel in initiating a plan.

6. Brainstorm to get ideas on how you would initially promote the cooperative plan of instruction described in number 1.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

8

Coordinator Responsibilities for Adult Training and Development

A group meeting of training station sponsors and supervisors facilitates explaining the educational values of the cooperative plan.

KEY CONCEPT: *Cooperative education is an integral part of lifelong education.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Explain the role of the teacher-coordinator in adult training and development.
- Conduct a needs analysis to determine the types of education/training required by an individual or an organization.
- Identify institutional roles in continuing education.
- Understand how to organize an adult training and development program.

KEY TERMS

adult education
consulting
continuing education
needs analysis
preparatory instruction
seminar(s)
training and development
upgrading

Adult education, conducted primarily by school corporations, private industry councils, and post-secondary institutions, has expanded greatly since 1970. This expansion is due, at least in part, to funding sources, including state and federal government agencies, as well as private enterprise. The emphasis on life-long learning is becoming a reality in more and more places.

There is a national trend for the **training and development** of adults which is being led by business and industry. Most large U.S. corporations have developed active human resource development programs. Presently, U.S. corporations spend an estimated $30 to 40 billion annually on the formal training of employees. Employee training by employers has become the largest delivery system for adult education. As of 1985, 18 corporations were offering college-level degree programs. At least 13 more corporations will be operating their own colleges in the near future.[1]

Much of the growth in cooperative adult training and development programs, however, is in the two-year community colleges. Some community college systems are utilizing cooperative education to support, as well as to make available, those technical programs that are much too expensive because of costly machinery and equipment. These programs are often joint ventures between post-secondary institutions and local industry. For example, in Terre Haute, Indiana, a local laser optics company uses faculty of the Indiana Vocational Technical College to teach course work for its employees while using plant equipment for hands-on training. To foster such relationships, many post secondary institutions employ business and industry training and development specialists.

Experiential (cooperative) learning for adults covers a wide range of learning opportunities. Educational learning for adults is increasingly taking place outside the traditional classroom. Cooperative pre-retirement programs also are becoming more popular within business and industry. Spouses and children may be included in these pre-retirement programs. Cooperative adult programs will be emerging at a greater rate, especially as the life-long learning concept is accepted by more adults. In addition, by the year 2000, 75 percent of all workers currently employed will need retraining.[2] Some individuals believe that cooperative adult training and development programs may provide a partial solution to the unemployment problem. Corporations train employees to increase corporation profits. Cooperative education has created a strong relationship between industry and public education.

One might easily wonder why a chapter on adult training and development is included in a book dealing with using the work environment as part of the school's instructional program. The answer lies primarily in the direct and trusting relationship teacher-coordinators establish with the business and industrial community. Management and school personnel need to recognize and be sensitive to training problems at all levels.

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[1] *Serving the New Corporation*. Alexandria, Virginia: American Society for Training and Development, 1986, p. 2.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

Because little formal corporate training filters down to smaller communities and to smaller businesses, the Adult Marketing Education/SBA Committee of the American Vocational Association in 1983 adopted an expanded definition of "adult education." The committee recognized the need to consider new and innovative ways to provide services to the business community. The following six-dimensional program of service was proposed:

1. Develop and/or disseminate learning resources.
2. Conduct market research.
3. Provide instruction to meet local training needs.
4. Provide **consulting** services.
5. Serve as instructional program administrator (broker).
6. Provide counseling services.

The adult marketing education proposal requires an expanded commitment from the teacher-coordinator to the community. The result of this commitment, however, could be dramatic as numerous firms begin to solve many of their productivity and profitability problems.[3]

The degree of involvement of the cooperative education teacher-coordinator with adult training and development varies greatly from state to state and from community to community. At one time, teacher-coordinators of secondary cooperative plans were expected to organize, supervise, and even teach in the adult training and development program related to their occupational area. In such situations, as much as a third or a half of the daily schedule was devoted to adult training and development. In a small community the teacher-coordinator was, in effect the director of adult training and development for the occupational area. The rationale was an obvious one—the coordinator was the best qualified person for adult training and development in a small community. Because of the person's occupational experience background and personality, and because of daily contacts with the community, the teacher-coordinator had a "handle on" that community's needs.

In most districts, the secondary school coordinator's role is still primarily that of a teacher. In some situations, the coordinator has been assigned responsibility for adult training and development. Post-secondary coordinators are often involved in life-long education programs and have quite a unique role, because of the strategy of the institution being truly community-service oriented. They are asked to plan and carry out short-term continuing education activities, such as conferences, clinics, and workshops. In addition, they usually have a major role in the planning of classes for part-time students.

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[3] Barry L. Reece, "Adult Marketing and Distributive Education—A New and Expanded Definition for the 1980's," *Marketing-Educator's News*, Fall 1982.

Because adult and **continuing education** opportunities continue to expand, the coordinator probably will play some role related to adult training and development, even with the diversity mentioned, and should possess at least a minimal understanding of the organizational and operational procedures of these programs.

Teacher-coordinators of cooperative plans can, in many cases, look forward to involvement with adult training and development. Adult education activities may benefit the cooperative plan. For example, development courses for adult sponsors and for supervisory personnel may enhance the on-the-job training given to cooperative student-learners. The contacts with employers on advisory committees for adult courses may result in more employers becoming better acquainted with the coordinator, thus bringing about an increased number of training stations. Other benefits may also accrue to the coordinator, such as increasing knowledge about the field and making contacts that will result in expanding local support for the program.

Enrollments in post-secondary programs, including adult training and development, are increasing rapidly. Day and evening classes, weekend workshops, and lunch-hour seminars have become an integral part of many in-city located campuses of four-year colleges and community colleges. In this present structure of adult education, it seems reasonable to expect coordinators to accept responsibility. If a total program of education for the occupational areas is to develop, the coordinator will probably need to assume a leadership role in its development. Involvement in adult programs may help students advance after they enter full-time employment. Confident coordinators, whether of secondary or post-secondary programs, also recognize that they are extremely competent as persons who understand training and training needs and who have the ability to work with businesspersons. They are cognizant of their ability to fulfill the role of "training consultant" for business and industry of the community. In the smaller town or city, the coordinator may be one of the few people in the community capable of planning and carrying on the training programs. Even in the larger community, the coordinator's talents are useful both to firms and to trade and professional associations that need advice about training. It is important to recognize that while all vocational teachers should be able to help the community with educational problems, coordinators are somewhat unique because they work daily with businesspersons. Therefore, not only do they have their confidence but they also have greater insight into their problems and needs.

Identifying Goals Through Needs

Education for occupational competency is a life-long process for most people. For out-of-school youth and adults, increased job competency in their present occupations or preparation for different occupations comes to some degree from on-the-job training, but increasingly it comes from organized, part-time courses offered by public and private schools, employers, and trade and professional associations and unions. Not only have factors such as technological changes, re-entry of women into the labor force, and geographic mobility made adult training that improves job performance necessary, but they have also made retraining imperative.

PEOPLE'S NEEDS AS A BASIS FOR PROGRAM PLANNING

A basic approach to program planning in adult education is the analysis of people and their occupational training needs at one time or another in their lifetime. The evaluation of training needed by an individual or an organization is called **needs analysis**.

1. ***Preparation for a new occupation.***—This situation may occur when individuals find themselves dissatisfied with their present jobs. While retaining these jobs, they may enter an adult course to prepare for another occupation. For example, a factory assembler may wish to become a skilled crafts worker or a salesperson; a cashier to become a stenographer; or a stockperson to become an insurance agent. Individuals who find themselves unable to continue in their present jobs because of disabilities are another group who need to prepare for new occupations. Both state and private vocational rehabilitation programs have expanded their training services. In these cases, adult training and development is termed **preparatory instruction**.
2. ***Increased performance on the present job.***—This situation is one in which individuals are satisfied with their present occupations but wish to improve their performance, typically to enhance their remuneration, but sometimes to increase their job morale and satisfaction. For example, a clerk-stenographer wishes to improve shorthand speed in order to earn a merit raise; an insurance agent wishes to increase sales and commissions; or a plumber or an electrician wishes to learn new techniques that will improve output. Classes to improve performance on the present job are *supplemental* rather than *preparatory* instruction. They are also termed **upgrading**.
3. ***Preparation for advancement.***—This situation occurs when a person

is satisfied with a chosen occupational field but desires advancement to a higher-level position—one of more responsibility. Increased remuneration may or may not result immediately; in some cases, for example, salespersons or crafts workers actually accept reductions in pay to obtain first-level supervisory or management positions. Examples of preparation for advancement would be classes that prepare clerk-typists as administrative assistants, accounting clerks as computer programmers, salespersons as sales managers, retail salespersons as buyers or store managers, assemblers as supervisors, and automotive technicians as service managers.

4. ***Retraining***—This situation is one in which the individual must learn new skills and information because certain aspects of the job have changed, because the individual is unemployed, or will be, or because the skills the person has are obsolete or not up to job standards because the person has been absent from the labor market (as is the case of many women re-entering the labor market). Technological advancements have created the need for retraining programs. Retraining is also necessary when one part of a worker's competency falls below job standards, but such retraining is usually accomplished by the employer.

In addition to adult vocational needs, it is also possible to think of the needs of adults according to job level. The three useful classifications are: employee (rank-and-file), supervisory (and mid-management), and management. The coordinator who is engaged in adult training and development will find the "needs approach" very useful in determining whether the adult program is truly one of a total program approach.

The coordinator engaged in adult training and development should be aware that some adults enroll in vocational classes to meet needs not expressed in the classifications already discussed. Some people enroll because they wish to associate with other people in the same occupations; some feel the need to stimulate their thinking; some wish to increase their status with their co-workers, supervisors, friends, and family, which comes with raising their educational level; and some desire to gain certificates attesting to their accomplishments.

Institutional Roles in Continuing Education

There are many types of educational institutions involved in adult training and development. While coordinators will be associated typically with secondary schools, area vocational schools, or community–junior colleges or technical institutes, they should be aware of other institutions, such as the extension divisions of colleges and universities that are involved in adult training and development. In the role of adult program director, coordinators should avoid duplicating the efforts of others, dovetailing their programs with those of other organizations and agencies whenever possible.

The following is a brief listing of the roles played by various agencies in implementing adult training and development.

1. ***Adult training and development in secondary school districts.***—Many school districts operate adult training and development vocational education programs, some operate under state plans for vocational education, others operate entirely under local school district auspices. These are declining as other educational institutions take over; some high schools no longer see their role as providing adult training and development, but rather as providing liberal arts–type programs. With the expansion of area vocational schools, comprehensive secondary districts cannot provide vocational adult classes as cost effectively as the area vocational districts.
2. ***Post-secondary institutions.***—Into this category fall the adult training and development programs of public and private community–junior colleges and technical institutes and of private business and trade schools.
3. ***Collegiate extension divisions.***—Most public and private colleges and universities operate adult training and development programs through their extension or continuing education divisions and through their cooperative extension services on both a credit and a non-credit basis.
4. ***State departments of education.***—In some states the division of vocational education operates adult training and development courses through a system of itinerant instructors or by contract with the extension division of state colleges and universities.
5. ***Trade and professional associations.***—Many trade and professional associations, through their educational directors or through educational institutes operated as part of the associations' membership programs, now offer adult training and development programs.
6. ***Unions.***—Labor unions have educational advancement as one of their stated purposes and operate educational programs for their memberships or for prospective workers in the occupations with which the unions are concerned. Unions are also involved with management in the operation of apprenticeship programs.
7. ***Non-profit groups.***—Some non-profit organizations, such as commu-

nity action groups, offer adult courses. For example, the Red Cross offers a variety of first-aid courses.

8. *In-house.*—Some organizations provide training programs of special interest to their employees, such as investments and retirement preparation.

Basic Procedures in Organizing Adult Training and Development Programs

A well-managed department of vocational education has a long-range program plan whereby the different groups with which it works may contribute to the realization of the objectives of that program. This type of planning chart would assist in carrying out any adult training and development program (see Table 8-1).

Among the many advantages of the program approach to adult vocational education are these:

1. Develops continuity in the training area.
2. Sets definite objectives for students.
3. Provides potential enrollees or individuals with prior preparation.
4. Enables students to upgrade themselves over a long term.

TABLE 8-1

Adult Evening Class Plans for Certified Growers

Objective	Present Situation	Goal	Ways and Means
1. Increase the number of growers of certified seed.	97 certified growers. 15% on registered list.	125 certified growers. 50% on registered list.	Conduct evening classes in five centers. Pool seed order for new growers. Sponsor field day on growing new crop.
2. Increase the number of tuber-unit plots.	20% have established tuber-unit plots.	75% with tuber-unit plots.	Include lessons on tuber-unit plots. Conduct demonstration plots. Sponsor tours to demonstration plots and to certified fields with well-arranged plots.

5. Introduces new ideas, skills, knowledges, and concepts in an organized learning situation as technology changes.
6. Sets high standards for content in carefully planned units.
7. Gives direction and purpose to the training program.
8. Produces a complete series of educational experiences to achieve a goal.

TIMING OF THE PROGRAM OFFERINGS

Planning adult training and development programs demands looking at the timing of offerings in terms of the needs of adults rather than those of traditional students. Adults are not captive students; they and their employers set their priorities according to the demands of their businesses, as well as according to their own personal values. It is wise to begin first by using the calendar rather than the academic year as a base. The following should be considered: vacations and three-day holiday weekends, peak recreation periods such as fall hunting, shift schedules, hours when working parents would most likely be at home, prime business periods, travel time to the class location, and major sporting and cultural events.

Examples of offerings that reflect these demands on the adult student are: (1) a morning short course on personnel and training techniques offered in the spring before summer hiring; (2) a customer credit course in the fall before the Christmas rush; (3) a secretarial refresher course for the Certified Professional Secretaries' Examination; (4) an income tax seminar in the fall; and (5) a machine technology course operating all year on weekends for upgrading.

SEQUENCING THE PROGRAM OFFERINGS

At state and local levels, experience has shown that the program approach to adult training and development is advisable. Only in exceptional cases should courses be organized and promoted as ends in themselves. No one course for adults can be exhaustive in the subject matter or problem areas; therefore, it is advisable not to cover areas of instruction too lightly. A program approach (the planning of a sequence of courses and experiences) causes interested groups to ask that courses be scheduled regularly in sequence year after year. This approach will enable the supervisors and instructors to provide continuity and depth to accomplish training objectives. This does not preclude the offering of an isolated adult course if the demand exists.

The program approach certainly implies that a sequence of courses is available, with certificates given upon completion. Some certificate programs are given in cooperation with local or national trade or professional associations. Sequences are illustrated by the following examples.

Chartered property and casualty underwriters' program. — This program consists of five yearly courses (parts), each made up of 60 clock-hours of instructions. These are: Part 1, "Insurance Principles and Practices"; Part 2, "Analysis of Insurance Functions"; Part 3, "Economics, Government, and Business"; Part 4, "Insurance and Business Law"; and Part 5, "Management, Accounting, and Finance." A national examination is given over each part at the end of the year.

Retail training program — This is a two-year program. The student attends two classes per week for four semesters, or a total of eight courses.

Required: 4 Courses	***Electives: Choose 4 Courses***
Retail Sales Techniques	Retail Sales Promotion
Store Operations	Display
Supervisory Techniques	Textile Information
Merchandising Techniques	Advanced Sales Techniques
	Principles of Buying
	Fashion Merchandising

DETERMINING THE LENGTH OF THE COURSES

In some cases, the appropriate course for adults will be the short-unit type, usually less than 20 hours of instruction. A useful approach is the **seminar**, defined as one or two meetings totaling about two to five hours. Examples would be seminars regarding shoplifting conducted for retail salespersons and store managers, telephone courtesy or personal appearance for office clerical workers, and new techniques in advertising for restaurant owners. Another short-unit type of course is that which runs for about 10 two-hour periods; some examples might be "How to Lead a Conference," "Human Relations Techniques for Supervisors," "Textile Information for Salespersons," "Energy and Federal Regulations," "Inventory and Stock Control," and "Solar Heating." In some cases these 20-hour courses are offered in sequences leading to a certificate of completion.

Besides the short-unit courses, there may be conferences or intensive training given. Many college extension or continuing education divisions and some local adult schools offer courses with intensive instruction all day for a week or two. These courses are particularly useful when participants are sent by their firms and when the courses must serve people in a wide geographic area.

The regular semester-length courses have the advantages of providing more instructional time and of adapting more easily to the schedule of the regular adult school. On the other hand, semester-length courses often conflict with other activities or with evening work assignments of potential enrollees—the evening store hours during the Christmas season are an example.

At one time it was believed the best time to offer adult classes was in the evening. However, with flextime becoming more popular, work schedules varying, and lifestyles changing, many adult courses are popular during the day and late afternoon and the "wee" hours of the morning, for example, for those who work the midnight shift.

CASE-IN-POINT

Bill Johnson is a marketing education teacher-coordinator in Roanoke, Virginia. In Virginia, adult education has long been a traditional role of the teacher-coordinator. While Bill seldom teaches adult training and development courses, he does help develop and organize them for his school system.

To get started each year, Bill and the other teacher-coordinators in the city conduct a needs analysis of local retail and service businesses. Information from these studies tell Bill what types of training and development are needed. Bill's job then is to determine where the course should be taught, when, what materials should be used, what the costs to students will be, and who will teach the course. For his services, Bill is paid a fee based on the number of students enrolled and the cost of the course.

The types of courses offered will vary according to whether a generic course on a topic such as "Selling" or a specialized course such as "Housekeeping Management" for the local hotel association is offered. Other popular courses include "Supervision," "Communications," "Time Management," and "Customer Service."

INVOLVING THE COMMUNITY IN PLANNING

Decisions on the timing of the course offerings, the timing of the units within a course, the types of instructional materials to use, the sources of instructional materials, and the suggested sources of teaching personnel should probably be made with assistance from persons in the occupational specialty area. An ad hoc committee is appropriate, with membership made up of from three to seven representatives in the field. After suggested objectives and units of instructions have been formulated, preliminary plans for a course offering have been made, and resource materials have been decided upon, a budget can be determined. The ad hoc committee may take an active role in one or more activities. Examples of special committees that might be used are:

Sources	***Types of Classes***
Local Data Processing Management Association chapter	Electronic data processing program or curriculum
Local National Secretaries' Association chapter	Clerical and secretarial program information processing
Local real estate board	Real estate classes
Educational committee of National Sales Executives, Inc.	Sales techniques, merchandising, retailing, marketing classes
Joint apprenticeship committee	Apprenticeship classes in trades and industrial adult offerings
Local engineering group	Technical course offerings
Particular craft group	Particular craft content
Health group	Practical nursing
Police department	Personal and home protection

Other sources of information and advice on the needs and demand for adult education are the state employment service, the state department of education (vocational division), the chamber of commerce, trade unions, and trade and professional associations.

FINANCING ADULT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Almost all educational agencies require that adult training and development be financed in such a way as to insure that costs will be recovered. The effort must be self-supporting. A few secondary districts perceive adult training and development to be part of their instructional responsibility and use the tax monies to offer free courses, but such districts are becoming rare as schools fight for increased support.

In some states, fees cannot be charged for adult training and development by the public schools—all aspects of adult training and development including the use of buildings, heat, and lights are free. Some schools charge a fee for materials used, especially when the materials are expensive, as in classes in welding, display, or clothing construction. Some schools charge a nominal fee, which they believe to be advantageous in attracting serious students and holding students through a course once they have enrolled. There is no scientific evidence that these advantages really exist, but experience has taught many supervisors of adult training and development the advisability of such a fee.

Persistence in attendance is usually attained as the result of the quality of the program—the motivation it creates and the unity of the courses it offers. An unorganized adult course invites irregular attendance. A course that is obviously planned as a unit tends to hold students because they know if they miss a part of it they will get behind. Charging adult students nominal fees is a common practice. Care should be taken to be sure the fees charged are not so high that they exclude adults who need the program and can benefit most from it.

Some adult programs contract with cooperating firms or government agencies that have a policy of paying part or all of the fees for their employees. The employer is billed by the school for the course and materials fees incurred by the employees. The firms, in turn, may recover any necessary fees from their employees, although some pay all or half if the employees successfully complete the course. Not only does this arrangement simplify billing, it is useful in recruiting students.

SECURING AND TRAINING INSTRUCTORS

There are many sources of instructors for adult training and development classes: secondary school and college teachers, itinerant instructors employed by state departments of education, personnel from training departments of business, government, and industry; educational personnel employed by trade and professional associations; homemakers with prior teaching experience and occupational experience; and the largest pool of all—employees, supervisors, and managers from industry.

Over the years there has been debate over who is better qualified to teach adults—the individual who knows the job but has no training for teaching or the trained teacher who does not know the job. The argument is fallacious. Adult classes, like any other classes, require instructor competence, both in contemporary subject matter and in up-to-date teaching methods and instructional technology. Adult students vary greatly in their competence in the basics—reading comprehension, computational ability, and writing and studying skills. Some have been failures in school and are apprehensive; some have hearing and eyesight problems; some have emotional problems. The instructor of adult training and development courses needs to know how to adjust instruction for such students. An instructor of adult training and development should be:

1. Up-to-date in the technical content to be taught, ranging from broad acquaintance to depth of operational detail.
2. Knowledgeable about the terminology of the industry and acquainted with the climate of the job, preferably from experience.
3. Comfortable with adults, having insight into their needs and their feelings and not feeling superior to them.
4. Competent in instructional methods and technology.
5. Flexible in the approach to course content and structure, understanding the immediate motivation of adults.
6. Licensed in the trade when the courses are part of preparation for licensed occupations; in other cases, recognized for competence in the trade.
7. Willing to engage in meetings or other activities designed to help improve teaching.
8. Willing to have a broad point of view rather than teaching only what is done in a certain firm.
9. Available to see the course through. Other employment responsibilities cannot be allowed to interfere with the teaching responsibilities.

Recruiting of instructors is facilitated by developing a call staff. This is a roster of individuals who are "on call" when an instructor is needed. They are selected individuals who have demonstrated their teaching ability and are listed according to the subjects or courses for which they are qualified. Recruiting is also facilitated by the coordinators' continuing contacts with business and industry. For example, job sponsors and supervisors of cooperative student-learners demonstrate their ability and can be invited to teach classes of adults. Advisory committees can suggest capable instructors and can assist in recruiting them. Presidents of local chapters of trade and professional associations and officers of local unions often know who are the most competent people in their trades.

In any case some instructor training is quite necessary, even if it is only a series of informal meetings devoted to problems raised by the adult training and development staff. Adult training and development instructors themselves report the need for orientation sessions in which the course outlines are discussed; furthermore, they want at least short meetings during the time they are teaching to discuss problems that have arisen. Inherent in well-operated programs of adult training and development is a system for training instructors of adults and certifying their training. These adults from business and industry who learn to teach well receive the bonus of becoming more effective on their jobs where training and supervision are often among their major responsibilities.

LEARNING ABOUT TEACHING

A functional relationship exists between the abilities and the personality of the instructor of adult training and development and the degree to which the objectives of the adult offering are reached. In a non-credit vocational adult offering, the participants will remain active only as long as they feel good about the instructor and believe that they are gaining in knowledge and skill through attendance.

Most instructors of adult training and development, particularly those from industry, need some instructor training to help them refine their training skills. Many secondary teachers also need to learn to teach adults, because the approaches they use with secondary students will not work with adults. Adults expect instruction that meets their needs *now*; they feel they have a real investment. They also want instruction that frees them from worry and concern over "passing."

LEARNING TO INSTRUCT AT THE LEARNER'S LEVEL

Adult groups usually enjoy group participation. Instructors of adult training and development should encourage group interaction and should usually serve as discussion leaders rather than as lecturers. The classroom procedure may be informal, but the planned direction of the discussion is such that objectives are reached.

By learning the experience and background of the class participants at the first class meeting, the instructor can adapt the content to the understanding and experience of the group members. Most adults want to learn those knowledges and skills that can be used in their work. Therefore, the material should be practical. It should be covered at a rate the learners can handle so that they will be able to absorb the instruction sufficiently to use it. The instructor should present ideas to use or to check out before the next group meeting, thus giving the meeting take-home value.

MOTIVATING ADULTS

Without the usual incentive of credits, precise grading, compulsory attendance, assignments, diplomas, and such, the motivation of adults becomes a matter of concern. In adult training and development courses, probably the main purpose for attendance is the short-run gain of getting a job or performing better on the job or the long-run gain of advancement or promotion. When adults engage in continuing education, they are adding to their personal schedule one additional commitment and one more responsibility. The time and energy required to participate in adult instruction is taken from some other responsibility—family, community, and/or profession, for example.

Adults expect to share in determining the course's goal and in directing their own learning. The wise instructor of adults will utilize the resources that can be offered by members of the class. Realizing the importance of active student involvement, the instructor will invite student help in planning the activities of the course in kind, scope, and sequence. The successful adult class achieves a productive interaction of individuals through the medium of shared learnings and the meeting of minds. Its atmosphere is informal without being disorganized. The group is guided without being dominated. Students feel they are a part of the group without being engulfed by it.[4]

EVALUATING ACHIEVEMENT

The heterogeneity of almost any adult group must be considered in evaluation. The age, motivation, experience, educational background, and sophistication in the content field will vary to a great extent.

Because individual members are in attendance to fulfill self-determined needs, any measurement of success of their effort must be in terms of their own growth. Their success needs to be measured against standards appropriate to their own experience and goals. A comparison should be made of their achievement at the end of the course in relation to where they were at the start of the course. Uniform examinations, exercises, percentage grades, and letter grades are held to a minimum. The best measure of the success of an individual in an adult vocational class is the observed improvement in performance and/or the feedback to the instructor of improved job satisfaction or performance.

Two tangible evidences of successful completion of an adult course often take the form of a pocket-size card (see Figure 8-1) and a certificate (see Figure 8-2). A culminating event for a sequenced certificate program may be an employer-employee dinner; a graduation dinner attended by class members, the instructor, the coordinator or supervisor, and the craft (advisory) committee; or even a picnic or a pizza with the instructor.

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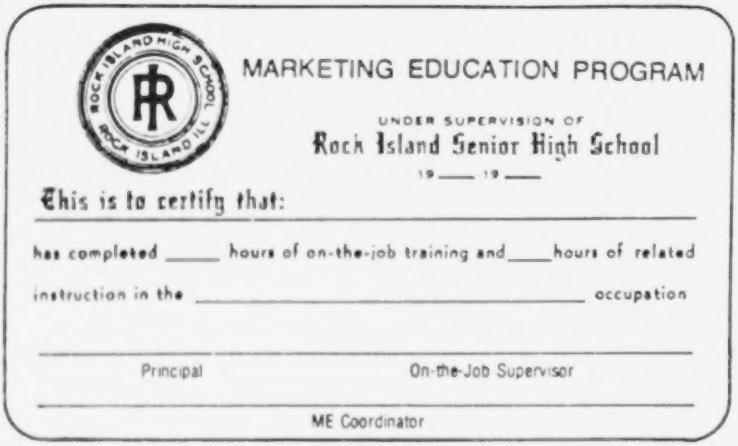
[4] Consult Thomas R. Allen, Jr., "The Adult Learner," *DE Today*, Vol. 12, Spring 1979, for additional information.



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM

UNDER SUPERVISION OF

Rock Island Senior High School

19____ 19____

This is to certify that: ______________________________

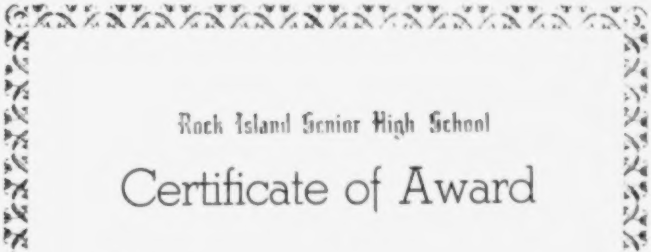
has completed _____ hours of on-the-job training and ____ hours of related instruction in the ________________________ occupation

Principal

On-the-Job Supervisor

ME Coordinator

FIG. 8-1



Rock Island Senior High School

Certificate of Award

Presented to ______________________________

For Meritorious Participation In
The Marketing Education Program
Sponsored Jointly By

The Retail Bureau

and the

Rock Island Senior High School

Principal

Coordinator

Chairman, Retail Bureau

FIG. 8-2

Questions and Activities

1. Write a paper on suggestions to new instructors of adult classes. Include suggestions from your own experience and from outside references to supplement the textbook reading. Include, among other things, the following:
   a. The types of students enrolled in an adult class
   b. The desirable characteristics of a teacher of adults
   c. Suggestions for organizing an adult training and development course
   d. Suggestions for physically managing the classroom
   e. Suggestions for utilizing a variety of methods of teaching adults
2. Prepare a survey form that might be used to gather information in a community to determine needs for a particular adult training and development course or program.
3. Prepare a file of forms used in your state by a specific service or division of the state board of vocational education. Be sure to include forms:
   a. To certify an adult instructor
   b. To approve a particular course offering
   c. To gather information on the completion of the course to use as a basis for reimbursement to the local school
4. Prepare a budget for a specific adult class, including the instructor's salary and an itemized list of supplies, showing the costs, incidental expenses, and estimated available funds for defraying costs and expenses.
5. Find the latest figures available on adult class enrollments and determine what trends are occurring in enrollments in your local community, your state, and the nation.
6. Select an occupational area with which you are familiar. Make a chart showing adult courses that could be offered for that area from rank-and-file through management training.
7. Describe the apparent adult training and development goals of each educational institution and agency in your community. What programs are offered? To what clientele? What is the apparent timing and sequencing technique? What gaps do you see? What duplication?
8. It is increasingly evident that public school districts are not involving their occupational coordinators in adult training and development roles. Why is this trend evident? Should it be so? Explain your answer.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

9

Coordinator Responsibilities at the Post-secondary and Collegiate Levels

Faculty cooperative advisor discusses potential cooperative placements with college students

KEY CONCEPT: *Cooperative education at the post-secondary and collegiate levels is a key factor in the successful placement of graduates.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Distinguish between the role of the college cooperative coordinator and that of the faculty cooperative advisor.
- Compare and contrast alternating, parallel, and single-field experiences.
- Discuss the nature of placement problems that are unique to post-secondary and collegiate situations.
- Understand how to evaluate cooperative students who wish to earn non-additive credits.
- Distinguish between work experience for general education and work experience for professional education.
- Identify and discuss the cooperative professional organizations.

KEY TERMS

alternating cooperative
cooperative faculty advisor
debriefing
higher education institutions
internship
learning agreement or contract

non-additive credits
open-interviewing
operational experiences
orientation experiences
parallel cooperative

Work Experience Education in Higher Education Institutions

Higher education institutions are defined, for the purposes of this text, as two-year post-secondary institutions and four-year colleges and universities. Many use the work environment, a part of their curricula, as a way of promoting general education and as a means of furthering professional education goals.

The use of cooperative education in higher education institutions has seen dramatic growth in recent years. Prior to federal funding under Title IV-D in 1970, only 200 cooperative education plans existed. Currently, there are over 1,100 plans, which annually serve an estimated 200,000 students. Present indications are that cooperative education will continue to play an important role in the expansion of higher education in the United States.

Although each plan subscribes to a variety of objectives, there are many similarities among them. According to a national study, 88 percent of the plans reported that their principal objective is to assist students in furthering their career development. Second, 83 percent reported that either all or most cooperative work assignments are related to the students' majors. Most work assignments are in the form of paid employment in industry, business, government, or service-type work situations. Finally, 70 percent of all cooperative occupational education plans award credit to students based upon their cooperative work experience. These credits are most often termed "non-additive," for they take the place of credit typically earned through classroom participation.[1]

WORK EXPERIENCE FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

Some liberal arts institutions are well known for their use of work experience education as part of the requirements for graduation. These liberal arts colleges usually include practical work in a productive situation in their curricula for two purposes: (1) to further the aims of general education by acquainting their graduates firsthand with the dignity of work and with the significance of work in a contemporary society and (2) to provide their students with the opportunity to sample areas of professional service and to test their own abilities and interests against the demands of these occupations.

In some institutions, the students' work experience is on campus. Students perform the work necessary for the operation of the college. For example, students may be employed in cafeterias, in the college business office, in maintenance departments, or on the school farm. This "self-help" approach permeates the institution and extends the entire time a student is enrolled. A good example is Berry College in Rome, Georgia.

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[1] James W. Wilson, *Summary Report: Cooperative Education—A National Assessment*, Applied Management Sciences Education Study, 1978, p. 5.

In other curricula, students are placed in work experiences off campus for one or more periods of time. Students are employed for remuneration by firms, charitable agencies, or government agencies. Students are expected to report on these experiences. With this arrangement the students gain not only the general education advantages of understanding the world of work and of living away from the campus but also a period of occupational exploration.

WORK EXPERIENCE FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Work experience is more widely used to further the aims of professional curricula than many educators realize. In general, a professional curriculum may include one or all of three experiences on the job. These are:

1. Experiences early in the curriculum that serve as occupational exploration, acquainting students with opportunities and requirements in the field.
2. Experiences in the middle and latter half of the curriculum that enable students to test theory against practice and that teach those skills the institution believes are best learned on the job rather than in the classroom.
3. Experiences near graduation or shortly thereafter that serve as internships prior to students' entry into professional practice. These provide students with required professional training in the transition from supervision to the full-time role of employed professional workers.

Orientation experiences.—**Orientation experiences** usually occur during the first year of collegiate education because they are designed to give students the opportunity to sample the profession. Through experience as an observer or a paid worker, the student gains insight into the specialties provided within a profession. The student also experiences the conditions and demands of employment in the profession and is able to engage in self-evaluation to test personal capacities and motivations against those of the profession.

Such exploratory experiences provide two basic plans. The first plan is to schedule the student part time in a series of observations of the profession while the student engages in the regular courses on campus. For example, the prospective teacher may enroll in a credit course entitled "Field Experience for Teachers" and may participate in a series of group and individual observations in schools. The institutional coordinator arranges experiences germane to the student's interest, schedules interviews with the student to discuss experiences, and evaluates written observation reports submitted by the student.

The second basic plan of providing professional exploration involves one or more assignments of a student to paid employment and enrollment in a credit course for the experience. Some institutions restrict the experience to a regular term, assigning the student full time to the employer; others schedule

CASE-IN-POINT

*Co-op Experience at IBM "Awesome"**

"Incredibly awesome" is the way computer science senior Kevin Kolar of Crown Point described his summer Co-op experience in the corporate headquarters of IBM in Boca Raton, FL.

Working in the Commercial Analysis Department, which is responsible for maintaining an overall view of the competitive personal computer market, he presented software and installed a local communication network for his department.

"My co-workers were very inspirational, offering their help and suggestions without hesitation. The information I received from them has played a vital role in helping me with possible career decisions," he said.

"This experience will be a tremendous asset when I enter industry upon graduation. My chances of being hired are greater due to my acquired knowledge and experience. My only regret is that I did not know about cooperative employment sooner," Kolar reported.

Kolar pointed out that his personal life was equally rewarding. Living on the east coast of Florida, only minutes from the beach, led to many exciting weekends. He met many students from schools across the nation, and some became friends he plans to see again when he returns in January.

"I would highly recommend cooperative employment to any student desiring a competitive edge over the thousands of graduates entering the computer industry each year," Kolar concluded.

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*Source: *Professional Practice Program Newsletter*, Terre Haute, Indiana State University, Fall 1985, p. 1.

a series of full-term or partial-term experiences with different units of the same firm or with different firms. In this case the aim is to give the student (for example, the future social worker) the privilege of sampling the different segments of the industry.

Regardless of the variations in scheduling, the experience is part of the curriculum if: (1) the student receives credit, regardless of whether he/she is paid, (2) the institution considers the student's personal interests and abilities before placement, (3) the employer understands the reason for the placement, and (4) the institution provides a coordinator who not only schedules the placement and follow-up but also arranges for student reports, interviews, discussions, and other intellectual activities designed to enable the student to interpret the experience.

Operational experiences.—In some professional curricula, plans of occupational experience, designed to teach certain skills and operational procedures that the institution does not, or does not wish to, teach, are provided. Such **operational experiences** have come about partly because the institutions cannot either physically or financially build laboratories that duplicate the complex and expensive equipment of industry. Examples of such situations are those related to engineering, architecture, and large computer installations. Another reason is that in some curricula, the educational institutions cannot duplicate the human environment. Examples would be the government agencies associated with curricula in police administration, social work, retailing and sales, nursing, institutional management, and teacher education. A third reason for including such experiences is the tendency for institutions and their faculties to prune from their offerings those courses that they deem "vocational." Increasingly, faculties expect academic courses to be concerned with theory and principles, with operational level skills to be learned on the job.

The majority of institutions whose programs have been described in studies or literature appear to use one of the other of two patterns. In the first pattern, a series of full-time experiences in industry are alternated with periods of full-time study. This pattern is often referred to as an **alternating cooperative**. Prime examples of this pattern are the cooperative engineering programs, the most famous of which are the one initiated by Schneider at the University of Cincinnati in 1906 and the one initiated by the General Motors Institute in Flint, Michigan, several decades ago. In these long-term programs, students receive a variety of learning experiences in different units of a broad field. A cooperating employer or the unit of the firm is expected to provide careful supervision and evaluation on the job and to develop a planned training schedule for each student in cooperation with the institutional coordinator. The student earns the full-time salary commensurate with the position. The student gains credit by submitting oral reports and written reports analyzing operations in the firm.

The second plan is to provide one or more periods of experience, often full time for a term/semester, or half time in some schools located in metropolitan areas where school and work can be combined conveniently. The period of experience usually occurs in the latter half of the curriculum when the student has completed the basic or core courses in the major field. In the best programs, careful placement, job supervision and evaluation, and assigned readings and reports are employed to insure learnings suitable to the academic credit awarded. These **parallel cooperative** experiences are found frequently in curricula such as police administration, marketing, accounting, and office administration.

Internships.—The term "**internship**" is used commonly (and erroneously) to describe a variety of work experiences used in curricula in higher education. The term is properly used to describe the activity of a person who has completed all the academic requirements for admission to a profession, but who must undergo a period of occupational experience in the profession prior to "certification" (licensing) as a recognized practitioner. Thus, the internship occurs either just prior to the student's graduation and the receipt of the academic degree, as in social work and teacher education, or afterwards, as in medicine, dentistry, dietetics, and other fields such as law and accounting, where licensing examinations are often given after a period of satisfactory experience.

How internships should be operated does not need to be described in detail. However, one major point needs highlighting—the difference between the intern and the cooperative student described in the previous section. The distinction is subtle but important, because it affects matters such as placement, supervision and timing of the experience, and credit/pay decisions. The intern is one who has mastered the basic academic content of his/her profession and who has been screened for entry into the profession. The intern is treated during the internship as a member of the profession, albeit a beginner. The internship is under the direct supervision of a practicing member of the profession. From the internship evaluation is derived the recommendation for the intern's acceptance and employment in the profession. On the other hand, the cooperative student is a student-employee who is learning part of the procedures of the profession on the job and is supervised by senior employees or unit supervisors. From the cooperative student's experience comes increased skills and knowledges of the job, a better understanding of actual practice, and, hopefully, a motivation for increased performance back on the campus, a background that can sharpen classroom questioning and discussion and produce a more insightful self-understanding of strengths and weaknesses.

Responsibilities

In higher education institutions, there are typically more individuals involved in the cooperative experience than are found in the secondary setting. Furthermore, the responsibilities of these individuals are sometimes different from those in the secondary cooperative education plan. The responsibilities of each of these groups or individuals are discussed as follows.

FACULTY COOPERATIVE ADVISOR RESPONSIBILITIES

The **faculty cooperative advisor** is a full-time teaching faculty member who often serves as a liaison between the cooperative education office and the academic department or school. Therefore, the faculty cooperative advisor is the essential element for success in cooperative experiences completed for academic credit. For the most part, the faculty cooperative advisor is involved in internship experiences, although faculty members can sponsor other cooperative students. Although responsibilities, may vary, the following are (1) a list of general responsibilities and (2) a list of responsibilities during the cooperative semester.

General Responsibilities

1. Attends orientation/training for faculty cooperative advisors.
2. Attends meetings of faculty cooperative advisors (normally one per semester).
3. Advises cooperative staff personnel of potential placement sites.
4. Promotes the cooperative occupational education plan to students, faculty, and employers.
5. Assures that the student's employment is related to career goals and that the employment qualifies for the cooperative plan.
6. Advises students of job opportunities by referring them to the career center, computer center terminals, cooperative bulletin boards located within various schools, or similar locations.
7. Promotes an understanding of the goals of cooperative occupational education through the development and dissemination of information.
8. Reviews/approves job descriptions for cooperative or departmental credit.

Responsibilities During the Semester

1. Meets with each student the first week of the semester and assumes cooperative responsibility for each student until final grades have been assigned.
2. Discusses student responsibilities and present job.
3. Meets with student and employer at the job site as necessary (two visits recommended). Can use phone calls as a supplement.
4. Encourages students to contact him/her at any time that problems arise on the job or when they need other career guidance.
5. Assigns projects for each student, which include reviewing student progress and assigning grades.
6. Completes all required paperwork, such as travel reports, etc.

COOPERATIVE COORDINATOR'S RESPONSIBILITIES

The cooperative coordinator is a full-time staff member who is assigned to the cooperative office. This individual may or may not be given faculty status with academic rank. His/her primary responsibility is to coordinate and supervise the cooperative employment of an assigned group of students. However, the cooperative coordinator serves in a multifaceted capacity as placement counselor, salesperson, educator, administrator, and referral agent. Some selected general responsibilities include:

1. Acting as a clearinghouse for forms to the faculty advisor from employers and students.
2. Providing lists of students who participate in cooperative occupational education to faculty.
3. Providing travel funds to the faculty advisor for monitoring students.
4. Acting as a liaison between faculty advisor and employers.
5. Establishing and maintaining student records for counseling and placement purposes.
6. Preparing routine correspondence and other paperwork required for daily operations.
7. Developing brochures and other promotional materials.
8. Attracting and selecting students for participation in the plan.
9. Attracting and recruiting employers for participation in the plan.

STUDENT RESPONSIBILITIES

College students have much to gain from the cooperative experience. Not only are they earning valuable dollars to aid in paying tuition but they are also gaining work experience that often leads to permanent employment after graduation. The following are some of the primary responsibilities of cooperative education students.

1. Students should remain in the assigned work experience for the duration of the semester or work period.
2. Students are expected to return to the same employer for all work assignments.
3. Students should submit a written evaluation at the mid-point of their work assignments and at the end of each work assignment.

EMPLOYER RESPONSIBILITIES

For all employers who hire cooperative students, there is a core of basic responsibilities. These seem to vary little from program to program. These responsibilities include:

1. Providing desirable career training experiences for students.
2. Participating in faculty/coordinator visitations.
3. Providing a written evaluation of student employees at the conclusion of each work period.
4. Providing a safe and appropriate environment.
5. Insuring that job duties remain in accordance with job descriptions.
6. Adequately supervising student employees.
7. Keeping students through the scheduled work period, unless there are compelling reasons not to do so.

Employer-Sponsor Selection

From time to time the faculty advisor will have the opportunity to be involved in selecting potential employer sponsors. The following techniques have proven useful to cooperative coordinators and faculty advisors when they are involved in the selling/selection process.

1. Always identify and contact the "decision-maker" within a company first. This will require some prospecting on your part. Leads can be obtained from sources such as membership directories, alumni, students, and the placement office.
2. Show the employer that you have the company's interests, as well as the trainee's interests, at heart.

3. Discuss specific aspects of a problem with the employer and deal with problems one at a time, for example, hiring restrictions.
4. Explain to the employer that you will assist with any problems that may arise relative to the trainee.

Placement of Students

In most schools, the placement process begins with group orientations to review the philosophy of cooperative education, required forms to complete, procedures of placement, types of jobs, rules and regulations, the art of interviewing, and résumé writing.

THE INITIAL INTERVIEW

Once the student has formally applied, the cooperative coordinator and/or faculty advisor should conduct a formal interview with the student. At this point, the student must understand the importance of mutual trust and communication. It should be noted that the great majority of problems occur because the student did not communicate with his/her coordinator.

During the interview, the coordinator should attempt to secure detailed answers to the following:

1. Choice of major—why? Is it definite?
2. Date to begin co-oping.
3. Personal information regarding citizenship, scholarships, athletic involvement.
4. Placement parameters, such as geographic and transportation restrictions and job preferences.
5. Previous work experience—full-time and part-time.
6. Extracurricular activities.
7. Reactions to courses, grades, and the school in general.
8. Reasons for choosing the school and the cooperative plan.
9. Any questions or concerns that stem from orientation sessions.[2]

In addition, the coordinator should review the student's initial résumé and make suggestions for improvements. The résumé then should be typed and copies made for the coordinator's file. This file should also include notes from each meeting with the student.

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[2] Barbara B. Porter. *A Review of the Coordinator's Role in Cooperative Education at Northeastern University.* Boston: Northeastern University Publishing Group, 1981.

STUDENT SELECTION

The process of matching the student's qualifications and interests to an employer's requirements is at best a difficult job. While it is next to impossible to find the perfect match for each student and employer, the coordinator should attempt to find the most appropriate student(s) for each job. The success of this effort will ultimately determine the success or failure of the school's cooperative plan.

When assessing each student, the coordinator should consider the following: (1) grades, (2) personal qualities, (3) geographic and transportation preferences and restrictions, (4) company requirements, and (5) student preferences. Based on these placement parameters, the coordinator will normally guide the student in the selection of several companies to interview with for cooperative positions. Most of these interviews will take place on campus; however, students are usually reimbursed for any travel required for off-campus interviewing. This process of allowing students to interview with more than one organization is called **open-interviewing**. It also implies that organizations can and will interview more than one student for each position.

In the final phase of selection, most students will interview with three to five companies before an offer is made and accepted.

FOLLOW-UP

A primary duty of the cooperative coordinator and/or faculty advisor is the follow-up of students. This requires regularly scheduled personal visits with employers as well as student debriefing meetings.

Visits should be timed so that employers and students have time for appraisal. Normally two to six weeks is allowed for the student on the job before the initial visit. Since some students may be a great distance from the school, the frequency of visits will vary; nevertheless, the telephone is also an excellent source of follow-up information.

Once students have completed their cooperative experience, it is also essential that they be debriefed once back on campus. This **debriefing** gives students the opportunity to express their reactions and impressions of the experience and to review their employer evaluation with the cooperative coordinator.

Evaluation of Students

Each student is evaluated each semester/term. The employer should receive an evaluation form from the cooperative office about three weeks prior to the end of the semester/term. The purpose of the employer evaluation is to provide the student with feedback on his/her job performance and to summarize both strong and weak points. Before the end of the semester, the evaluation form should be completed by the employer and then discussed with the student.

In addition, those students who enroll for credit by registering for a departmental internship should be evaluated by their faculty advisor or a faculty member designated by the department chairperson. Besides feedback from the employer, faculty members will require students to provide some or all of the following academic information.

Organizational Biography

An organizational biography is usually a short (two- to five-page) description of the first two weeks of the work experience. In essence, this description of the organization includes the stated purpose of the organization, the size and major departments, a list of clients, the source of funding, and its relationship to other organizations. One reason for writing such a biography is that it enables the student to get the big picture of the organization right away and to chart its formal structure.[3]

Work Products

A second possible indicator of learning is copies of the work produced on the job. These can vary greatly, from graphics, memoranda, notes, and statistical tables, to reports or articles that the student may have published. In some cases, written explanatory notes are useful to put the work products in context.

Journal

One of the most helpful ways to record work experiences is a journal. The journal can be used as "raw data" for analyzing learning over the tenure of the field experience. It can also be used to measure growth toward specific learning objectives. It should not be a log of the student's activities; instead, it should be a collection of the thoughts and insights that the activities have produced. In other words, it should focus on what is learned rather than on what is done. A journal may also contain any on-the-job dilemmas or problems and related insights.

Short Papers

While the journal works as a free-flowing device for recording scattered thoughts, it is sometimes useful to make more organized and detailed presentations on topics of particular interest. Short (five- to eight-page) papers, either developing themes or describing other topics related to work, might be assigned.

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[3] *Faculty Supervision Manual*. Washington, D.C.: American University, 1984, pp. 15–18.

Readings

Assigned reading that is related in some way to what the student is doing is an excellent way to increase his/her awareness of the purpose of the organization, the problems encountered, and the philosophical questions that should be considered.

Bibiliography

If the student is doing substantial job-related reading, one way to demonstrate this is to record the works read in a formal, annotated bibliography. By keeping an on-going list of the literature that is required on the job, he/she will have a reminder at the end of the field experience of the depth and nature of the reading program.

Final Wrap-Up

At the end of the semester, it is often a good idea to require a final medium-size (10-page) paper, which briefly describes the whole work experience and then focuses upon a self-evaluation. In essence, this is similar to an annual report of a company or an employee.

Composing a thorough self-evaluation is difficult but essential. This paper might address questions such as the following:

- What were the most important insights gained during the semester? How were these clarified or modified over the course of the semester? (The journal is a good source.)
- At the close of your program, how accurate does the organizational biography you outlined at the beginning of the semester seem to be? How do you explain the discrepancies, and what insights do they suggest?
- What were the greatest success(es) and/or accomplishment(s) at this job?
- What were the most valuable things learned in terms of educational, personal, and career development?
- What can you identify as weaknesses you would like to correct in yourself or abilities you would like to acquire? What would you do differently if you could start over again?

- How has the cooperative placement affected your academic, personal, and career goals?
- How would you describe the relationship or your cooperative position to what you have learned in class?
- What skills did you tap in your cooperative position, and which ones did you develop during the course of your cooperative experience?
- How might this position help you refine your ideas about the world of work and your work environment preferences?

The Portfolio

The portfolio should include memoranda, reports, statistical analyses, graphics, letters, and other examples of the student's work. Beginning the portfolio with a one- or two-page paper describing its contents and their relation to the work may also be useful. If the material is sensitive or classified, then the general nature of the work in the portfolio can be put on a separate summary sheet. This will give a better picture of progression during the job. It will also be useful for future job placement. Often prospective employers would like to see written work from previous employment, and the portfolio is an excellent record.

Other methods faculty advisors use regularly in supervising cooperative students include:

1. Requiring students to meet in groups to discuss assignments or work-related occurrences or to hear guest speakers who are experts in a generally related field.
2. Requiring students to make appointments to meet with the faculty advisor every two to three weeks.
3. Asking students to complete a job information sheet, which includes material useful to both the student and the faculty advisor.

Some students have prepared major research papers (after projects suggested by their job supervisor over and above their cooperative jobs). This is especially true at the graduate level, where some students have developed thesis topics as a result of cooperative research.

Whatever methods are used, faculty members have tried to keep in mind the importance of making the student's cooperative experience more than just a job off campus. It is a way to learn what cannot be learned in the classroom. Through this academic reflection and analysis, the student realizes how unique the experience is.

Writing a Cooperative Syllabus

Most cooperative offices follow the procedures of academic departments and ask faculty advisors to submit a written syllabus indicating general student requirements. However, it is important that any structured guidelines not interfere with the ability of the faculty advisor and the student to tailor the academic component to the placement.

Cooperative academic assignments usually fall into four categories: (1) written work (original research or expository writing), (2) reading, (3) portfolios, and (4) meetings.

American University offers the following as a sample syllabus.

for 3 credits:

1. Read and review one book related to the kind of work your organization does or the world of work in general. (two books for six credits; three books for nine credits)
2. Produce writing that demonstrates an appropriate level of conceptual thinking, research, and/or analysis—approximately 20 pages either in several short papers, two or three medium length, or one long. Topics to be determined. (40 pages for six credits; 60 pages for nine credits)
3. Provide portfolio of work produced on the job.
4. Schedule conferences every two to three weeks either on an individual or a group basis.
5. Have a post-placement session in the cooperative office.

Granting Academic Credit

The awarding of academic credit for the cooperative experience is an increasingly controversial topic. Accrediting agencies have traditionally examined only the curricula of undergraduate academic programs, although some agencies such as the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) do not recognize cooperative credit as meeting graduation requirements.

A Northeastern University study found that most senior colleges award no credit for the cooperative experience.[4] However, there is a significant trend in community–junior colleges towards the awarding of credit. The study found that 70 percent of all cooperative plans awarded **non-additive credits** in some curricula and additive in others. Non-additive credit means that credits earned replace academic credits normally awarded when students take campus courses. The average number of credits per experience was 3.75 to 4.2, and the average number of credits awarded was 10.3 to 11.6.

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[4] James W. Wilson and Sylvia Y. Brown, *Cooperative Education in the United States and Canada: 1977 Summary*, Boston: Cooperative Research Center, Northeastern University, 1978, pp. 8–14.

The same study indicates that many more junior colleges allow the cooperative coordinator to award credit than do senior colleges. Most senior colleges place the responsibility on the teaching faculty. A breakdown of frequently used approaches for awarding credit is:

1. Academic department	26.6%
2. Cooperative education coordinator	23.4%
3. Joint responsibility of coordinator and faculty	19.9%

AMOUNT OF CREDIT

The most common practice among cooperative plans is to award the equivalent of one course for a one-term work experience. The range, however, is from one credit to a full term of credits.

Often community–junior colleges and others using the **parallel cooperative** plan relate the amount of credit to be earned with the hours worked. For example, Burlington County College in New Jersey relates work and credits in the following manner:[5]

Total Hours of Work per Term	*Credit Hour(s)*
115–229	1
230–344	2
345–459	3
460 and above	4

Other programs that utilize alternate forms of the cooperative plan have established more flexible credit policies. For example, American University ties the amount of credit earned to equivalent lab and preparation times found in academic courses. Counting lab time on a two-for one-basis (2 hours of lab/work time counts as 1 hour of class) plus 40 hours of preparation time for scholarly projects and work, American University requires a minimum of 120 hours of work for 3 hours of credit for an undergraduate student. According to American University analysis, the minimum requirements for a standard academic course would be 112½ total hours (37½ class hours plus 75 hours of preparation time).

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[5] Daniel R. McMahon, "Documenting and Crediting Co-op Learning," *Developing and Expanding Cooperative Education*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978, p. 34.

LEARNING AGREEMENTS OR CONTRACTS

The basis for awarding credit is often the **learning agreement or contract**. This contract is an agreement between the student and the coordinator or faculty advisor detailing the goal(s) or objectives that the student proposes to accomplish while on a cooperative assignment. The agreement must also have the approval of the employer.

The purpose of the learning agreement is to encourage students to become proactive in accomplishing their goals so that they will get more out of their cooperative experience.

A typical learning agreement might contain (see Figure 9-1):

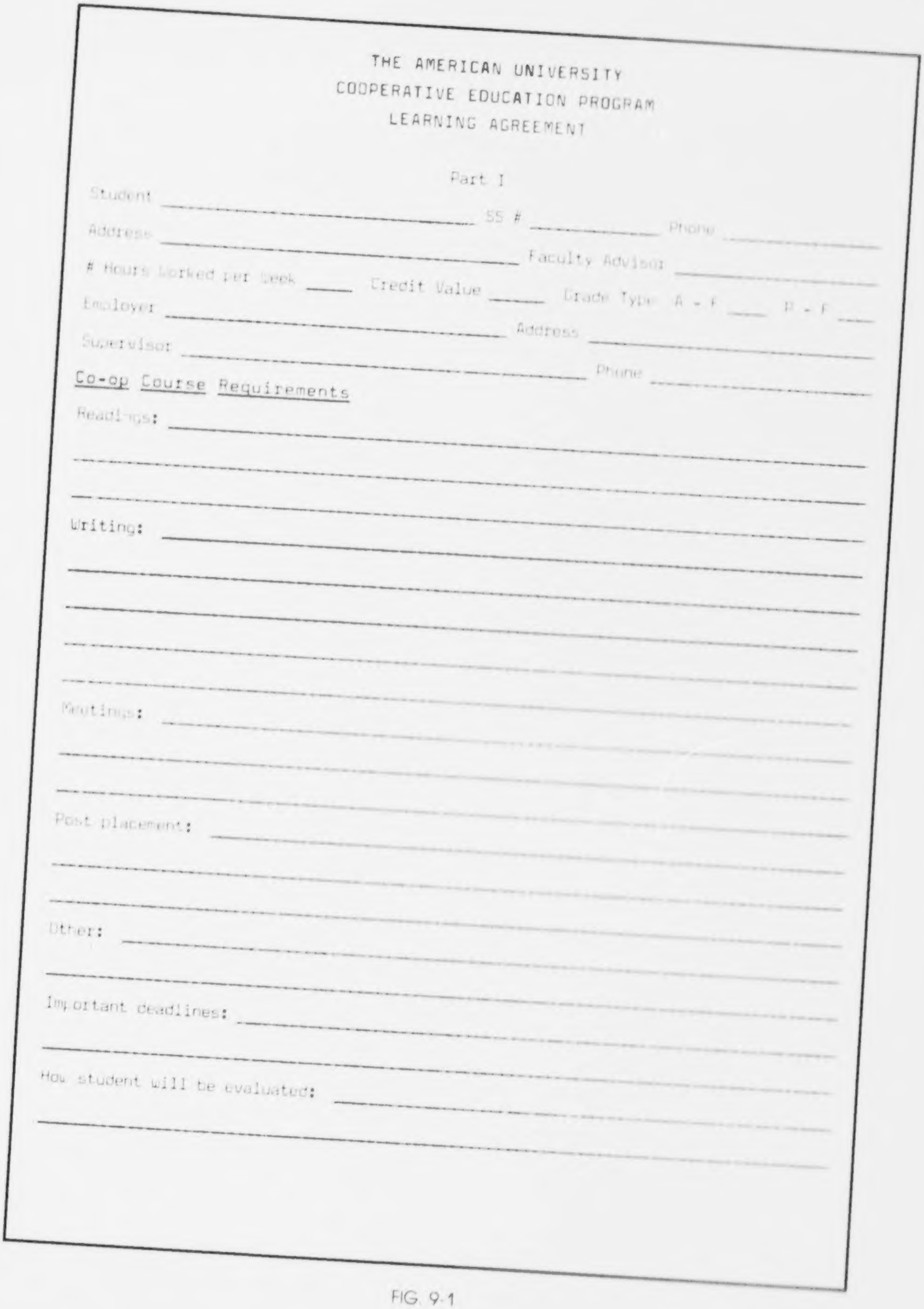
1. Objectives to be accomplished.
2. Detailed, time-oriented steps leading to the goal.
3. Anticipated obstacles, resources, and deadlines.
4. Evaluation procedures.

TYPE OF GRADE

Both letter grades and pass/fail grades are used in awarding credit for cooperative experiences. In either case, the objectives set forth in the learning agreement are an excellent guideline for evaluation. The current trend is for giving pass/fail grades when credit is awarded by the cooperative coordinator for parallel experiences; however, in the case of internships, single-field experiences and other similar forms of cooperative education where faculty members award credit, it is not unusual for better grades to be given. It should be noted that a substantial number of schools that do not award credit or grades do insert a statement of accomplishment in the student record.

An Overview of Professional Cooperative Organizations

Many cooperative coordinators affiliate with one or more professional organizations concerned with cooperative education. Membership in these organizations has many benefits, one of which is the networking of other professionals and employers. The following is a brief synopsis of five major organizations dedicated to furthering cooperative education.



THE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY
COOPERATIVE EDUCATION PROGRAM
LEARNING AGREEMENT

Part I

Student ____________ SS # ________ Phone ________
Address ____________ Faculty Advisor ________
Hours Worked per Week ____ Credit Value ____ Grade Type: A - F ____ P - F ____
Employer ____________ Address ________
Supervisor ____________ Phone ________

Co-op Course Requirements

Readings: ____________

Writing: ____________

Meetings: ____________

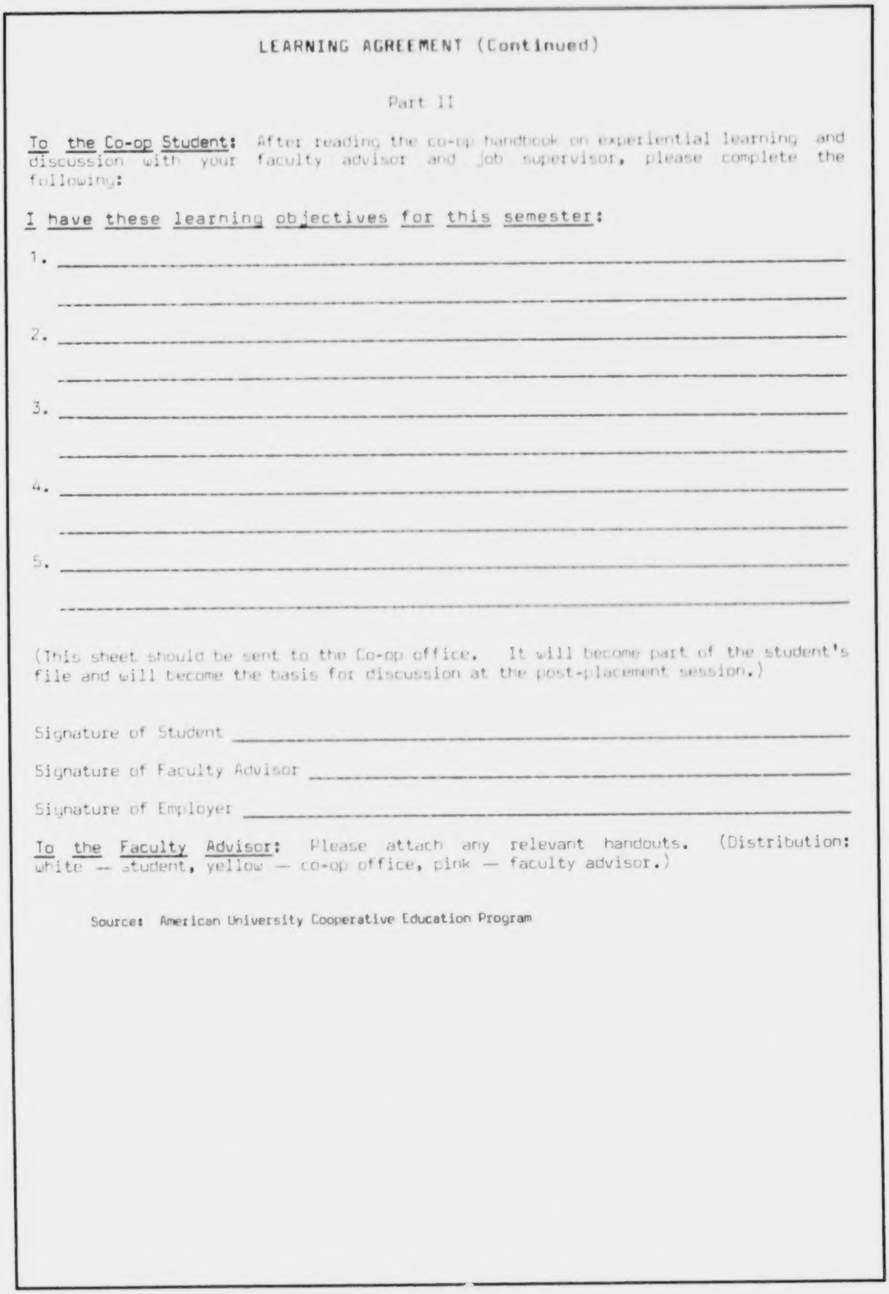
Post placement: ____________

Other: ____________

Important deadlines: ____________

How student will be evaluated: ____________

FIG. 9-1



LEARNING AGREEMENT (Continued)

Part II

To the Co-op Student: After reading the co-op handbook on experiential learning and discussion with your faculty advisor and job supervisor, please complete the following:

I have these learning objectives for this semester:

1. ____
____

2. ____
____

3. ____
____

4. ____
____

5. ____
____

(This sheet should be sent to the Co-op office. It will become part of the student's file and will become the basis for discussion at the post-placement session.)

Signature of Student ______________________________

Signature of Faculty Advisor ______________________________

Signature of Employer ______________________________

To the Faculty Advisor: Please attach any relevant handouts. (Distribution: white — student, yellow — co-op office, pink — faculty advisor.)

Source: American University Cooperative Education Program

FIG. 9-1 (Continued)

1. **Cooperative Education Association (CEA)**

   Organized in 1963 to meet the needs of those developing programs in all curricula of cooperative education. Publishes a listing of cooperative education schools in the United States. Holds an annual spring conference for employers and educators. Presently has over 1,000 members. Address: 221 North LaSalle Street, Suite 2026, Chicago, Illinois 60601.

2. **Cooperative Education Division of the American Society for Engineering Education (CED/ASEE)**

   Established as 1 of 51 divisions and committees of ASEE in 1929. Usually referred to as CED. Primarily interested in engineering and technology. Publishes the *Engineering Co-op Directory*. Meets biannually in late June (general meeting) and in January (College Industry Education Conference). Contact: Director of Cooperative Education, Mississippi State University, P.O. Box M, Mississippi State, Mississippi 39762. PH: (601) 325-3823.

3. **National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE)**

   Established in 1979 for those involved in experiential, field experience, internship-type plans. Publishes various nationwide internship directories. Meets annually every fall. Contact: Peer Assistance Network for Experiential Learning (PANEL). PH: (1-800) 424-2933.

4. **National Commission for Cooperative Education**

   Established in 1962 for the purpose of getting more colleges and universities involved in cooperative education and increasing the number of employment opportunities to match the growing number of schools. Has been instrumental in promoting cooperative education with the federal government and has arranged for testimony in Washington, D.C., on numerous occasions for this purpose. Offers an annual corporate membership to aid in its efforts to provide various workshops, training centers, employer institutes, and research in the expansion and development of cooperative education nationwide. Address: 360 Huntington Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02115. PH: (617) 437-3378.

5. **Midwest Cooperative Education Association (MCEA)**

   Established in 1977 to provide an organization for community–junior colleges, colleges and universities, employers, and others interested in cooperative education within the Midwest area. One of its aims is to maintain a strong working relationship with CEA and CED/ASEE. (No permanent address.)

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Questions and Activities

1 What is the difference, as explained in this chapter, between the terms "interns" and "work experience students," when used in reference to students in collegiate programs of professional education? Is this distinction valid? If so, what are the implications for college educators who organize and carry out such programs?

2 In a collegiate cooperative occupational experience plan designed to teach operational practices and to provide for application of classroom principles, what methods can be used (a) to assure that these outcomes are accomplished and (b) to measure the student's achievement for the purpose of granting course credit and providing a course grade?

3 What devices or arrangements relating to curriculum instructional methods, placement, supervision, and responsibilities of the employing agency are necessary for each of the three types of collegiate professional occupational education experiences as they are defined in this chapter?

4 What type of credit, if any, is given at your college? What rationale is used for justifying the existence or non-existence of credit? Is a letter grade or a pass-fail system used? Are students charged tuition for cooperative education credit?

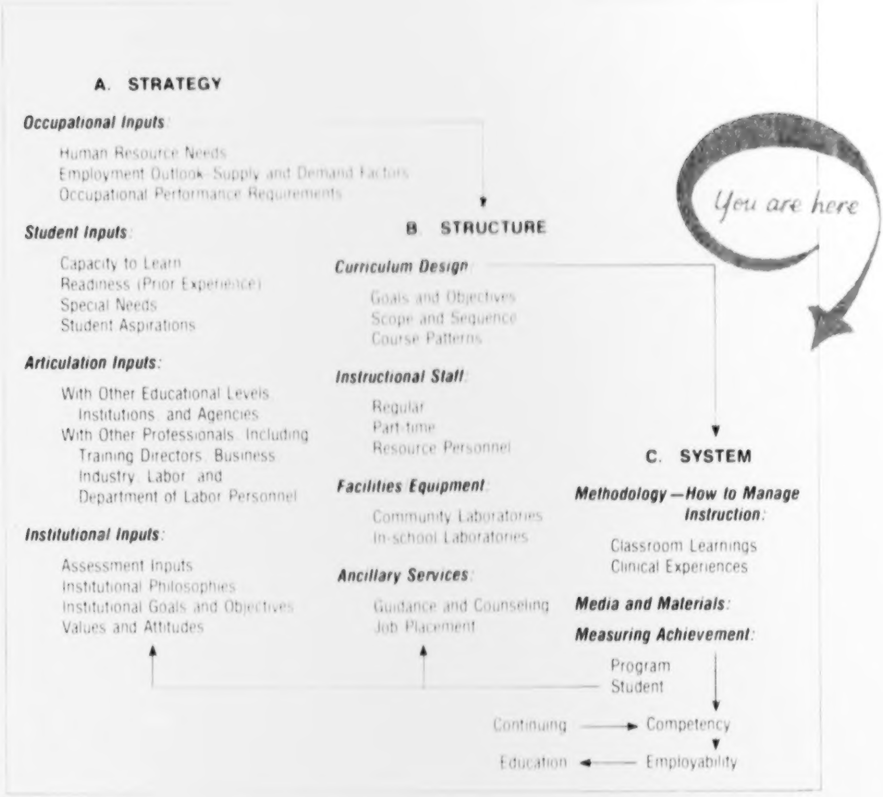
5 Discuss the types of assignments you could use as a faculty cooperative advisor to evaluate students. How would you weigh those assignments in relationship to job performance?

6 Explain why on-site follow-up visits of students are of key importance.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

SECTION THREE

The System of Instruction and Coordination



A. STRATEGY

Occupational Inputs:

- Human Resource Needs
- Employment Outlook—Supply and Demand Factors
- Occupational Performance Requirements

Student Inputs:

- Capacity to Learn
- Readiness (Prior Experience)
- Special Needs
- Student Aspirations

Articulation Inputs:

- With Other Educational Levels, Institutions, and Agencies
- With Other Professionals, Including Training Directors, Business, Industry, Labor, and Department of Labor Personnel

Institutional Inputs:

- Assessment Inputs
- Institutional Philosophies
- Institutional Goals and Objectives
- Values and Attitudes

B. STRUCTURE

Curriculum Design:

- Goals and Objectives
- Scope and Sequence
- Course Patterns

Instructional Staff:

- Regular
- Part-time
- Resource Personnel

Facilities/Equipment:

- Community Laboratories
- In-school Laboratories

Ancillary Services:

- Guidance and Counseling
- Job Placement

C. SYSTEM

Methodology—How to Manage Instruction:

- Classroom Learnings
- Clinical Experiences

Media and Materials:

Measuring Achievement:

- Program
- Student

Continuing → Competency
↓
Education ← Employability

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION THREE

Section Three covers the components of the instructional system, which consists of (1) the careful initiation of a cooperative occupational education plan, (2) the provision for quality instruction, and (3) the evaluation and improvement that are necessary to enable the cooperative plan to achieve its potential. The system, like any other, is a way of utilizing human resources, methods, and materials in a planned manner to assist students in reaching their goals.

Also emphasized in this section is the important role of the coordinator in unifying and balancing all elements of the plan to provide integrated instructional experiences for the students, specifically in correlating school and job instructional experiences into a unified whole. The lack of this correlation is considered by many vocational educators as the major weakness of existing cooperative plans.

Those interested in the occupational specialities discussed in Section Four should consult the chapters in this section frequently, for they deal in depth with over-all principles, which are generalizations that must be modified at times to fit the learning needs of student-learners in various occupational fields and the peculiar learning environments in different kinds of businesses and agencies.

A timely topic for those involved in organizing and operating various cooperative plans is the legal aspects of cooperative education. These are discussed in Chapter 16.

10

Planning and Carrying Out Effective In-school Instruction

In-school instruction in a well-equipped classroom must be handled by a certified teacher-coordinator. Here a student discusses a case problem.

KEY CONCEPT: *Effective related instruction is an essential component of the cooperative plan.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to

- Explain why correlated instruction is effective in-school instruction.
- Distinguish between the three types of related instruction.
- Explain the career development approach to cooperative occupational training.
- Describe the instructional outcomes expected from correlated instruction.
- Distinguish between cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor skills.
- Explain the vocational approach to instruction.
- Describe "cycle instruction."
- Identify, in general terms, the key characteristic differences between special needs students and "regular" students.
- Describe the major thrusts of mainstreaming.
- Identify the major components that an IEP must include by law.
- Identify the major sources of multi-cultural information.
- Describe at least six teaching methodologies suitable for providing related instruction.

KEY TERMS

affective domain
career development
cognitive domain
correlation
cycle instruction
directly related instruction
general occupational competencies
general related instruction
IEP
multi-cultural learning environment
psychomotor domain
related instruction
specific job competencies
specific occupational competencies

A number of times in preceding chapters cooperative occupational education has been emphasized as a plan of vocational instruction that builds upon learning experiences in school by combining and correlating them with learning experiences at the training station, so as to meet the student's career goal needs. In-school instruction is particularly important in developing occupational competence, because relying solely on the job to provide appropriate learning experiences turns over the educational process to persons who are not professional teachers and who may not have the time to devote to the adequate planning of learning experiences.

The Learning Theory of Cooperative Education

The whole rationale of teaching–learning in cooperative education is quite different from that applied to other areas of the secondary school curriculum. With most in-school instruction, even in vocationally oriented programs, the classroom work proceeds on certain assumptions. These are: (1) because students will use the learnings *on the job after graduation*, there is time to present topics according to a logical pattern of development; (2) students are committed to preparation for a general family or cluster of occupations and need little or no instruction for a specific job title; (3) there is little or no opportunity to test the application of classroom instruction to business operations because the students are not employed. On the other hand, the theory of cooperative education recognizes the individual student's need for specific instruction. Further, it recognizes that in cooperative occupational education, the instruction of the student-learner occurs in two places, the school and the job, in a correlated manner. The key to instruction is **correlation**, which emphasizes that:

1. Instruction both in the school and on the job is organized and planned around the activities associated with both the student's individual job and the student's career objective.
2. The concepts, skills, and attitudes basic to occupational competence are taught as principles in school but are applied and tested on the job.
3. Instruction is *correlated continuously*, whereby the sequence of instruction topics in school is related to the sequence of the student's job activities, rather than the topics being presented in the order found in the textbook or in other logical patterns. The primary role of correlated instruction is reiterated by Klaurens, who points out:

"Merely placing a student in a marketing job and limiting the teacher-coordinator's role on the job is not a co-op plan—it might better be called a 'cop-out' plan."[1]

4. Each student's learning problems are different, because each student's job activities are unique and therefore require a different pattern of training. This means that part of the time the teacher-coordinator must individualize the in-school instruction by:
   a. Using group instruction but individualizing the assignment so that each student can apply the learning to the training station job and report on its validity.
   b. Using individual study assignments, such as projects and job study guides, and individual reading assignments.

Competency Areas to Be Developed

As discussed earlier, the cooperative plan may be either the capstone of a curriculum, encompassing two or more courses, or a self-contained instructional program without the prerequisite instruction providing basic facts and skills. In either case, the instruction in school is geared to the career objective, and the training station is seen as a place for learning new skills or for providing practice under real conditions of those concepts learned in the classroom. During the in-school class, three basic instructional needs of student-learners, if they are to be occupationally competent and therefore employable, are **general occupational competencies**, **specific occupational competencies**, and **specific job competencies**. The proportionate amount of time devoted to each area of need and the question of whether or not each should be covered in a separate course are secondary to understanding the three basic needs.

1. ***General occupational competencies.***—These are best described as those skills, concepts, and attitudes needed by *all* workers regardless of their occupations or specific jobs. Some examples of topics in this category are "Employer–Employee Relations," "Job Safety," "Labor Laws," "Labor–Management Relations," "Dress and Grooming," and "How-to-Get-a-Job Information."
2. ***Specific occupational competencies.***—These include those skills, concepts, and attitudes essential to a broad occupational grouping, those with common usefulness to a family of occupations. For example, certain merchandising and sales principles are applicable to most market-

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[1] Mary Klaurens, "Co-op Plan or Cop-out Plan?" *DE Today*, Vol. 5, No. 1, Fall 1971, p. 1.

ing occupations, while keyboarding/typewriting is common to a wide range of business occupations. In the industrial field, certain skills such as blueprint reading are common to the mechanical and construction trades but are uncommon in the food preparation trades.

3. ***Specific job competencies.*** — These include those highly specialized skills, concepts, and attitudes that directly relate to (a) the single job classification in which the student-learner is interested, *e.g.*, auto ignition specialist, word processing specialist, or shoe salesperson, and (b) the specific requirements of the student-learner's training station position.

Coordinators as Teachers

In the cooperative occupational education plan, the coordinator's primary role is as a teacher. It is they who design the necessary learning experiences that enable students to progress toward their individual career objectives. It is they who are sufficiently knowledgeable about the students and the training stations to provide in-school instruction that is correlated in time and topical sequence with occupational experiences and that is attuned to career requirements. There are some individuals who feel that it is not necessary for the coordinator to teach the related class(es) in school. As evidence for this belief, they point to students who are occupationally successful without the benefit of such related instruction. However, in any occupation there are exceptionally self-reliant individuals who learn the occupation without the benefit of formal vocational class instruction. Almost all individuals who have studied and worked in cooperative education believe that it is the coordinator who structures the ideal learning situation as well as teaches the student-learners in the related class.

The Nature of Related In-school Instruction

In the cooperative plan of instruction, in-school instruction has been called **related instruction** for many years. Because the cooperative plan refers to either a capstone approach or a self-contained curriculum, the term "related" will be used here to refer to courses or modules of instruction that are taken at the same time as the cooperative job experience and that provide skills, concepts, attitudes, and integrated task practice geared to the student's career goals and immediate training station needs. The related instruction may be in various combinations such as one period or several and may be taught by the coordinator or by other vocational instructors. As used in this text, the term means that the instruction must be geared to the students as individuals and correlated with their training station experiences.

The term "related instruction" has acquired a number of varying definitions, particularly as some states have written their own handbooks and have used the definition they preferred as indigenous to their own state plan. However, related instruction for the purpose of this text is of three types: **general related instruction, directly related instruction, and supplementary instruction.**

1. ***General related instruction.***—The development of those understandings and competencies that are needed by and useful to all workers, regardless of the specialized occupational skills needed. This instruction, while common learnings, is vocational in the sense that each student can apply it to his/her own particular occupational situation.

   *Some Units of Instruction for General Related Learnings**

   Orientation to the Program
   - a. Understanding responsibilities to school, employer, and co-workers
   - b. Knowing the purposes of the program and becoming oriented to the rules and policies.

   Learning to Do My Present Job Well (analysis of job)
   Personality Development and Adjustment
   Employee–Employer Relationships
   Co-worker Relationships
   Money Management Problems of the Worker
   Income and Other Taxes Paid by Employees
   Essentials of Social Security
   Labor–Management Relations
   Insurance for Personal Living
   Planning for Progress on the Job
   Improving Dress and Grooming

2. ***Directly related instruction.***—The development of skills, concepts, and attitudes that are directly applicable and meaningful to students, both commonly for a family or cluster of occupations and specifically for the students' career goals and the demands of their specific training station job titles. It also includes remediation, which is the provi-

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*Abstracted from *Manual for Occupational Relations, General Related Study*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1963.

sion of instruction in general education competencies needed for employability or for profiting from advanced instruction in the related class(es).

3. ***Supplementary instruction.***[2]—The development of skills, concepts, and attitudes that while useful to student-learners, are in the nice-to-know category and are not directly needed for employability. This instruction may also be termed "indirectly related." Such instruction may be either general education courses or applied vocational courses. The distinction is not in its application in the course to a vocational objective but in its usefulness to the learners as they apply it.

The exact distribution of classroom instructional time among the three areas outlined will, of course, vary from program to program. The wise teacher-coordinator recognizes that to educate individuals only generally for occupations is not to educate them at all, while to educate them specifically for one job title is only to *assure* their immediate employment and to *insure* their need for retraining in the future. Enrollment in the directly related class should be restricted to bona fide student-learners, because students who are not in training stations cannot profit from the instruction that is geared to occuptional experiences. Non-cooperative students who are enrolled tend to lessen the effectiveness of the instruction for the cooperative student-learners. Directly related classes should be taught by the coordinators, because it is they who know the students and their needs and who can most easily correlate school and job.

The distinction between directly related and supplementary instruction can in some way be shown by examples of course titles. In some schools the directly related class is simply titled "Cooperative Related Training" or "Cooperative Business (Marketing, Health, etc.) Education." However, it would seem more to the point to describe the related class by its occupational meaning, such as "Marketing Education," "Marketing Practices," "Business Office Practices," "Health Practices," "Culinary Arts," or, "Machine Trades." Supplementary courses might be different for each student, depending on the student's career objectives and needs. Some examples might be:

For trade and industrial occupations: drafting, blueprint reading, shop mathematics, or a host of other industrial courses

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[2] When not applied to cooperative occupational education plans, the term "supplementary instruction" is used differently. Years ago, the American Vocational Association defined it as "vocational instruction generally provided in day or evening classes on a part-time basis for employed adults working to refresh, update, or upgrade competencies needed in their employment or for advancement in responsibility; includes updating courses and advancement curriculums." It is possible that the term was used in cooperative education because at one time the cooperative student was defined legally as an adult who returned to school part time as a student.

For health occupations: anatomy, chemistry, advanced biology, typewriting

For home economics occupations: nutrition, foods, textiles, biology, anatomy

For business occupations: business, English, advanced bookkeeping/accounting, word processing, advanced typewriting, speech, mathematics

For marketing occupations: advertising, color and design, speech, bookkeeping/accounting, textiles, industrial arts

The Career Development Approach to Content

The forward-looking teacher-coordinator has adopted the career development approach to cooperative educational training. **Career development** is not the same as career education. As shown in the step-by-step training plan, there is a need to train the student-learners for success in their entry jobs while simultaneously preparing the students for advancement in their chosen career fields. This career approach suggests that some of the content in the related class should go beyond the needs of the training station placement and the anticipated entry-level position. Concepts should be developed that are useful in advanced positions. For example, while a student-learner may be placed as a clerk-typist (based on present skills) and may learn those routines of a word processor (anticipated entry position), instruction related to the job of administrative assistant, which is the ultimate career goal, should also be given.

In furthering students' career goals, related instruction should stress building understanding, which is learning the "why" of the operations. Classroom activities should include many exercises that show a variety of concept applications. In this way, the instruction builds for transfer—the hallmark of depth of understanding. In addition, related instruction should provide many opportunities for developing creativity and imagination in problem-solving. The simple "right-way" approach to problems should give way to many "right-ways," if evidence can be given to support the solutions. Obviously, this approach calls for many cases to be presented.

In designing related instructional patterns, teacher-coordinators should recognize that different occupations require different combinations of skills and conceptual training. For example, in most industrial trades, the manipulative skills are predominant. The training station can be relied on to teach most skills, especially on specialized equipment, but the related technical information must be taught in school. This is also generally true of health occupations and agricultural occupations. On the other hand, manipulative skills in marketing occupations play a minor role; much school instruction is necessary to teach merchandising concepts and judgment skills, while the job serves as a laboratory in which to try out, test, and apply such concepts. Business occupations involve many manipulative skills, but unlike industrial occupations, usually the skills must be developed under controlled practice conditions in school rather than on the job.

Planning In-school Instruction for Cooperative Student-Learners

When planning in-school instruction, teacher-coordinators should:

1. Define the appropriate educational objectives.
2. Define the basic learning tasks facing each student.
3. Use the vocational approach to instruction.
4. Determine the sequence of instruction.

DEFINING THE APPROPRIATE EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The various approaches to related instruction are all based on the need to determine decisively the outcomes that are expected from the related instruction. Ideally, student-learners have enrolled in the program because they are interested and because they can benefit from the training, which prepares them for entry employment and for advancement on the job. During the students' participation in the program, the combination of classroom experiences and on-the-job training and student organization activities provides many ways for formal instruction to enhance each student's competency level and to bring about a change in behavior. Thus, four instructional outcomes are sought. They are:

1. Acquisition of facts—basic information or knowledge about the business and industrial world.
2. Acquisition of skills—abilities to apply facts, basic information, or manipulative skills to the job at hand.
3. Development of understandings and concepts.
4. Development of learning attitudes and behavioral patterns.

Facts gained from the vocational education experience have in and of themselves little lasting value and are of little consequence unless they are used appropriately in further study and analysis, that is, in the solving of personal or occupational problems.

Skills are abilities to apply basic factual information to various types of problem situations as a necessary follow-up to the learning of such information. In the occupational areas, skills are needed to:

1. Make necessary computations.
2. Read and interpret.
3. Apply basic facts and information in determining the relative merits of alternatives.
4. Exercise judgment in selecting.
5. Draw conclusions.
6. Apply basic information in carrying out job skills or operations.

Understandings might be thought of as the comprehension of ***relationships*** between ***basic knowledges*** and ***concrete problems***, as distinguished from the knowledge of isolated segments of content material. It is these understandings that characterize the "truly skilled employee."

Formed on the basis of understandings and concepts, ***attitudes*** relate to the position an individual takes on an issue or a problem. Because attitudes involve feelings and emotions and because the attitudes of teacher-coordinators strongly influence the attitudes of their students, teacher-coordinators should strive to reflect positive attitudes gained from their experiences in business and industry. If they exhibit negative attitudes, their students will probably display them also. The attitudes displayed by student-learners on the job or at student organization activities, such as conferences or conventions, may directly reflect the attitudes passed on by their coordinators.

A more sophisticated way of looking at the desired instructional outcomes provided through cooperative education is to classify the outcomes according to Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*.[3]

Cognitive domain includes those objectives that deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills—the acquisition of facts and the acquisition of certain skills—abilities to apply facts and basic information.

Affective domain includes objectives that describe changes in interests, attitudes, and values and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

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[3] Benjamin S. Bloom, *et al.*, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, Handbook I: "Cognitive Domain," 1956, and Handbook II: "Affective Domain," 1957, New York: David McKay Co., Inc. See p. 7 of Handbook I.

Psychomotor domain involves the manipulative or motor-skill area, including the acquisition of skills—manipulative skills to the job at hand.

Expressing performance goals in behavioral terms.—Educational literature for at least two decades has emphasized preparing instructional objectives for occupational preparation in terms of performance goals, which are expressed in behavioral terms.[4] As a result, teachers have begun to think about and plan around objectives expressing what learners are expected to do, under what conditions, and according to what criteria. Such thinking and planning represent the role assumed by teacher-coordinators as they plan purposeful training station step-by-step plans correlated with pertinent related classroom instruction.

DEFINING THE BASIC LEARNING TASKS OF STUDENT-LEARNERS

The philosophy of cooperative training, regardless of the occupational area involved, is based on recognizing that student-learners have made their tentative career choices. Their objectives for employment must be furthered by both in-school instruction and planned experiences on the job in the training firms. Cooperative student-learners have several sets of learning tasks that can be summarized as follows.

The student-learners must:

1. Learn well the skills, technical information, and attitudes necessary for their jobs at the training stations. This is a primary learning task.
2. Learn those concepts and operational techniques applicable to the general occupational fields chosen. Some of these cannot be applied to the training stations because they are more advanced than those demanded by the training station job assignments. On the other hand, students may learn many of these concepts and skills in school and apply them to their present jobs to test their validity and to help reveal how their application to businesses is somewhat different from each individual's own.
3. Meet those needs that are unique to each individual and unlike those of most, or any, of the classmates. This uniqueness of need occurs because work takes place in a *specific firm* on a *specific job* and with a *specific career goal*; thus, each student's needs are likely to be different from those of other student-learners.

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[4] See Robert F. Mager, *Preparing Instructional Objectives*, 1967, *Developing Attitude Toward Learning*, 1968, *Developing Vocational Instruction*, 1967, and *Analyzing Performance Problems*, 1970, all from Fearon Publishers, Lear Siegler, Inc., Education Division, Belmont, California

USING THE VOCATIONAL APPROACH TO INSTRUCTION

Effective related instruction is enhanced when teacher-coordinators adhere to the vocational approach to instruction. They should use several principles as a guide. First, they should make the standards of the job the standards of the classroom—performance in the school is inadequate if it does not meet the minimum standards expected by employers in the community. Of course, the teacher may well wish to pursue standards different from those of the community. On the other hand, the teacher should be aware that student-learners who work daily must appreciate their employers' standards.

The second principle of vocational instruction is developing those competencies that are deemed primary to job success and relegating to later the development of those competencies that might be termed by employers as "desirable to know" or simply "nice to know." In deciding what must be taught first and what will be taught later if time is available, teachers adher to the employers' viewpoints rather than fulfilling their own desires. This means also that those topics that student-learners *need* to know on the job *early in the school year* are taught *early in the school year*, regardless of when they should be taught according to the chapter sequence of the textbook. This principle of the primacy of instruction according to job needs is illustrated in Figure 10-1.

The third principle of vocational instruction is educating workers as a

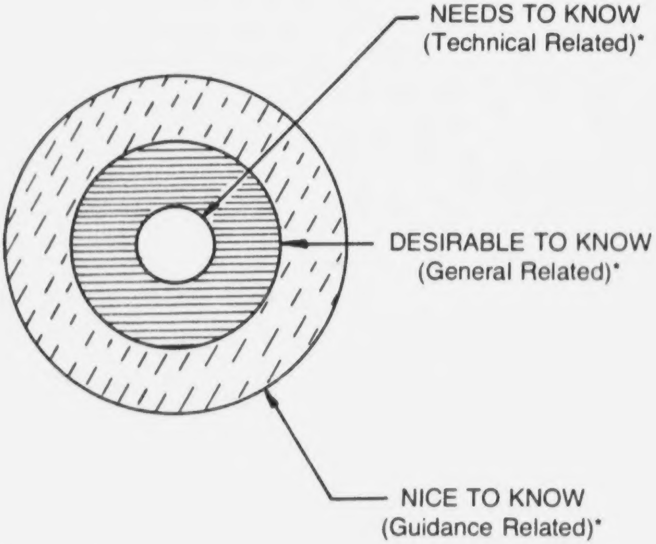

FIG. 10-1. The primacy of instruction. *Note: Industrial education teachers use the terminology shown in parentheses.

"total package of behavior." In operation, this principle involves recognizing that skill alone is not enough for success on the job. Employees must have human relations competencies, the ability to problem solve, and a host of desirable personal qualities, including initiative, poise, etc. Developing individuals as total employees is to recognize the demands of the contemporary job market in which skills alone are insufficient.

DETERMINING THE SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

In many subjects the sequence of topics is quite logically developed from the content itself, since the students will not apply the learnings immediately. In the cooperative plan, the sequence of instruction is very much dependent upon the students' occupational experiences.

General distribution of time.—In general, the distribution of time in the related instruction period(s) can approximate that shown in Figure 10-2. Note that in the beginning of the year the students' need for specific content is primarily taken care of on the job; hence, the related instruction can be concentrated mainly upon general needs common to all student-learners. On the other hand, as the student-learners progress through the year, they increasingly need, and can operationally apply, the principles of the occupation. Figure 10-2 also points out the need for individual instruction throughout the training period.

In addition to the distribution of instructional time shown in Figure 10-2, teacher-coordinators are guided by the need to *cycle* instruction. **Cycle instruction** refers to teaching a topic briefly once, then returning to it one or more times to add depth of understanding. The need for cycling instruction is

Proportionate Allocation of Instruction for a Cooperative Program

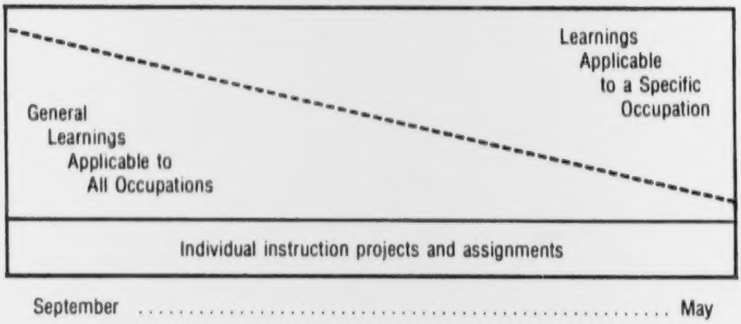
Learnings Applicable to a Specific Occupation
General Learnings Applicable to All Occupations
Individual instruction projects and assignments
September
May

FIG. 10-2

pronounced when no preparatory subjects are required. In this case, students on the job need to know many aspects of their occupations, yet there is insufficient time to cover each one in depth prior to the time the students need the competencies. Therefore, topics must be "hit" quickly and returned to later in the school year. For example, most students in marketing education will need some understanding of sales techniques early in the school year in order to perfom on the job. However, the teacher cannot afford to spend six to eight weeks on sales techniques because students also need to know about human relations, store systems, and the like. Thus, the teacher cycles the instruction, covering the minimum essentials of sales techniques, in 7 to 10 days, then going on to other needed topics. The teacher can return to more indepth instruction in sales techniques later in the year when the need for more complicated techniques is present and when time for that instruction is available.

Number of minutes for related instruction.—There is no magic formula for determining the number of minutes for related instruction nor for estimating the number of months of the course. Judgment of this time element must be based on the complexity of the occupational learnings to be attained; the prior learnings possessed by the students; the type of learning activity, such as laboratory work versus cognitive teaching, which is predominant in the field; and the capacity of the students to profit from instruction.

However, related instruction is likely to be more effective and rewarding if a double or a triple period is used. This is because the block-time is convenient for many laboratory and participatory activities and is useful in helping students become involved with individual projects both inside and outside the classroom.

Planning Related Instruction for Special Needs Populations

As explained previously in this text, the term "special needs populations" is used generally to describe persons who are (1) handicapped, disadvantaged, or limited–English-speaking; (2) members of minority groups; or (3) gifted and talented. In recent years the term "exceptional" has become popular for describing all persons who have difficulty succeeding in "regular" programs, more so than for describing talented and gifted students. Therefore, the term "special needs populations" usually refers to individuals who require assistance and/or programs that are modified to accommodate their special needs.

In vocational education, the term "special needs populations" is being used comprehensively to include the traditional special needs groups (persons with disabilities and disadvantages) as well as to describe adults in need of training and retraining, single parents and homemakers, and displaced homemakers. Thus, the term is being used to describe a broad segment of people who, for one reason or another, are having problems achieving in a regular vocational education program and therefore require special teaching–learning techniques and supplemental and supportive services and resources. There is great diversity in the special needs of individuals who comprise special groups. Therefore, vocational education for special needs populations must be multifaceted.

The underlying principles and practices used for regular students are basically suitable for those individuals with special needs. All individuals—exceptional and nonexceptional—have many of the same needs and goals. These needs and goals include: (1) feeling good about themselves; (2) exploring and clarifying personal values; (3) emulating successful role models; (4) associating and socializing with others; (5) developing career aspirations; (6) preparing for vocations and avocations; (7) engaging in work that is satisfying; (8) living independent lives; and (9) participating fully in society. Unfortunately, many special needs individuals are not attaining these goals because of the numerous barriers that stand in the way.

With some adaptation, modification, and refinement, the strategy/structure/system model for curriculum development discussed throughout this text can be utilized to meet the needs of special populations.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS

An essential prerequisite for teaching special needs students is a thorough knowledge of the students—their backgrounds, fears, talents, habits, shortcomings, and lifestyles. However, the characteristics of these students are diverse. The generally accepted characteristics of special needs students can be divided into four categories (general, economic, personal, and educational) and can be used as a guide to help in understanding them and in providing the appropriate instruction for them. These categories are:

General Characteristics

Lack of success in academic competencies.
Tendency toward impulsive decisions and judgments.
Feelings of rejection.
Poor self-concept.
Strong defense mechanisms (aggressiveness).
Unorthodox values system.

Economic Characteristics

Negative environment.
Low income, poverty-level.
High rate of unemployment.
Poor housing.
Inadequate diet.
Improper rest.
Lack of physical comfort and recreational opportunities.

Personal Characteristics

Poor general physical health.
Feelings of hopelessness.
Emotional problems.
Alienation from family.
Lack of imagination and ideas.
Limited experiential background.
Not strong willed—quickly yields to pressure.
Abbreviated communication skills.
Hostile, defensive attitudes; inner rage.
Not willing to work hard (lazy).
Delinquency (high degree of anti-social behavior).
Highly developed coping skills.

Educational Characteristics

Low ability.
Severe underachievement.
Lack of motivation.
Lack of participation.
Poor attendance record; truancy.
Early dropout.
Negative attitude toward intellectual tasks.
Unwillingness to trust adults as sources of information.
Poor logical reasoning.
No reading materials such as books or magazines in the home.
Limited communication skills.
Limited computational skills.
Short attention span.
Major cognitive deficits.

It is important to remember, however, that special needs students are *like* regular students more than they are different. They laugh, cry, fear, love, and long to become accepted and respected for their accomplishments. The key differences are (1) their own perceptions of self-worth, (2) their own perceptions of failure, (3) their lack of success in the learning arena, and (4) their styles of learning.

Since most teacher-coordinators have had limited professional training in special needs education, the problem of meeting the needs of special populations is immediate especially in response to mandates to mainstream. The related class must be geared not only toward correlating the students' on-the-job work experiences with the in-school instruction but also toward improving special needs students' reading, studying, and learning skills.

The following tips may be used in the related instruction class.

1. Keep directions simple.
2. Make the beginning assignments short so initial success can be achieved (set up short-term goals for these students).
3. Provide immediate evaluation and feedback on student tasks and assignments.
4. Give short quizzes frequently to evaluate students' progress and to measure their understanding of materials and assignments.
5. Allow flexibility within schedule; vary content sequence.
6. Provide ample praise and encouragement for students with special needs.
7. Have various materials that are interesting and relevant available and accessible to students; design a resource area where students can browse and investigate topics of interest.
8. Modify (but not weaken) curriculum and methods; provide challenges at each student's level.
9. Use professional resources (special educators, guidance counselors, social workers, parents, community members); develop partnerships in education for the benefit of students.
10. Do not underestimate the ability and potential of students; strive to develop their skills and intelligence to the highest degree possible.
11. Learn as much as possible about special needs students.
12. Provide a positive atmosphere of learning in the classroom; create a place where learning takes place and special needs in education are eliminated.

MAINSTREAMING

In the past, vocational education programs for persons who are handicapped were generally separate from those for persons who are not handicapped. Usually these were special classes within the regular vocational program, such as a typing class and a special class in hotel/motel housekeeping services, or they were vocational education classes in special schools or special centers, such as residential and hospital schools, rehabilitation workshops, and sheltered workshops.

CASE-IN-POINT

Debra Orr is a teacher-coordinator. As a teacher-consultant for students who are mentally impaired, she has several specific duties, which include identifying those students with handicaps who are ready for the cooperative plan and then placing these students on jobs. Debra refers students to the area vocational center from the five high school districts in the county that are approved to graduate students in special education. She also serves on the educational placement and planning committee (EPPC).

When a student is ready for job placement, Debra locates a suitable placement. She visits the facility to examine the working conditions and to interview the prospective employer. After the student has been placed, she makes periodic visits to the job site to check the student's progress toward meeting the established requirements. She keeps a progress record of the student, in which she includes annual goals, performance objectives and expected achievement, expected time of achievement, criteria for success, and measurement techniques.

The trend away from separate programs and toward integrating, or mainstreaming, persons with handicaps into regular vocational education programs in regular settings got its impetus from legislation such as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. The goal is for persons who are handicapped and persons who are not handicapped to be integrated within the same educational setting.

The National Advisory Council on Education Professions Development defines "mainstreaming" as:

> . . . the conscientious effort to place handicapped children into the least restrictive educational setting which is appropriate to their needs. The primary objective of this process is to provide children with the most appropriate and effective educational experiences which will enable them to become self-reliant adults. Within this objective, it is thought preferable to educate children the least distance away from the

CASE-IN-POINT

Johnny Wong lives in a suburb of upper middle class families in a midwestern city. Johnny has been attending special education classes since he was diagnosed as a slow learner early in his elementary school years. Now at age 17, Johnny has the opportunity to participate in the cooperative plan, which is offered through the area vocational center as a half-day, shared-time program with his home high school.

Johnny is one of 20 to 25 students who are invited each term to participate in this special program. His parents are sent a letter of explanation, which serves as an introduction to the program and the teacher-consultant. The letter explains that Johnny will spend nine weeks at the area vocational center in an initial evaluation program. During this period, Johnny will be tested in many different areas and exposed to a wide range of career opportunities through filmstrips, tape recordings, and hands-on experiences. There are 20 occupational programs available to Johnny; each program has from 2 to 8 sub-areas for specific jobs. The evaluation program will help the curriculum planners determine Johnny's maturity level, his hearing and vision capabilities, and his willingness to prepare for a job.

At the completion of this exploratory period, Johnny's performance record will be evaluated by the EPPC so that an educational program that meets his personal needs can be planned. Johnny's parents will be invited to be members of this committee, with equal responsibilities for decision-making. A school administrator, a teacher, and a specialized diagnostician will also be members. Together, they will plan a course of study for Johnny.

In Johnny's county, students who have special needs cannot graduate from high school without having successfully completed a work experience program or a cooperative plan. Thus, the importance of this program is very clear to Johnny and his parents.

> mainstream of society. Hence there is a heavy emphasis on movement into the regular classroom whenever possible.[5]

The basic principle underlying mainstreaming is that students who have handicaps can benefit educationally and socially from being in programs with students who do not have handicaps. Mainstreaming is based on the assumptions that students who are handicapped have more similarities than differences in comparison to their peers who are not handicapped and that "separate" education can result in "unequal" education. The 1984 vocational education legislation clearly states that students with handicaps are to be in regular vocational education programs as much as possible. However, some educators believe that state and federal law should require that all students who are handicapped be placed in regular classes. Legally, these students are to be placed in the least restrictive environment most appropriate to their needs.

> . . . vocational education programs and activities for handicapped individuals will be provided in the least restrictive environment in accordance with . . . of the Education of the Handicapped Act. . . .[6]

Few educators would disagree with the equality and justice of education principles related to mainstreaming. As a matter of fact, belief in these principles has led some educators and school systems to expect miracles for students who have handicaps when they are placed in regular classes. In some cases, mainstreaming has been thought to be the panacea for the educational problems of students with handicaps, who have been haphazardly taken from special education classes and placed in regular classes. Many educators are discovering that merely putting students who are handicapped in regular classrooms without increased services and support personnel invites failure—even despair. ***Mainstreaming means more, not fewer, services and personnel.***

> Mainstreaming is not the total elimination of self-contained special education classes. It does not mean that all handicapped students will be placed in regular classes. Further, it does not automatically imply that those handicapped students who are placed in regular classes will be in that setting for the entire school day.
>
> Mainstreaming is not an arrangement that can be accomplished overnight in a school system. Instant change often leads to unstable classroom environments.

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[5] *Mainstreaming: Helping Teachers Meet the Challenge.* Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Council on Education Professions Development, 1976, p. 7.

[6] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984.* Title II, Part A—"Vocational Education Opportunities," Sec. 204 (a) (3) (A).

> Mainstreaming is not just the physical presence of a handicapped student in the regular class.
>
> Mainstreaming does not mean that the placement of handicapped students in regular classes jeopardizes the academic progress of nonhandicapped students.
>
> Mainstreaming does not mean that the total responsibility for the education of handicapped students placed in regular classes will fall to the regular class teacher.
>
> Finally, mainstreaming does not mean putting educators "out on a limb" and expecting them to accomplish tasks for which they are not prepared.[7]

Instead, mainstreaming is the creation of new and different educational alternative for students who are handicapped. It is a student-centered movement. It assumes that the educational system is responsible for meeting the individual needs of all students—that once the students' special needs have been identified, the school environment and instruction must be adapted to meet those needs. Most students who are handicapped can be accommodated in regular classes with or without supplementary services. A few may require hospital/homebound instruction. ***Mainstreaming does not do away with special classes or special schools***, for these settings may be the most educationally appropriate for some students.

All students need some personalized instruction. The best classroom environments for all students are those recognizing every student has special needs and that through individualized instruction these needs can be met.

There is no basis for concern that the presence of these students who are handicapped in regular classes will interfere with the progress of students who are not. They can learn a great deal from their classmates with handicaps, such as learning to respect individual differences and having an opportunity to gain information about different kinds of handicaps.

THE IEP'S

What is an IEP? The Education for All Handicapped Children Act requires schools to develop an individualized education program (IEP) for each student who is handicapped. This written statement is to be created by a team of qualified personnel. The law requires that the program be developed in a meeting involving a representative of the local education agency, the teacher, the parents or guardians, and, when appropriate, the student. The law identifies an IEP and its component as:

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[7] Ann P. Turnbull and Jane B. Schulz, *Mainstreaming Handicapped Students: A Guide for the Classroom Teacher*, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1979, pp. 48–49.

> . . . a written statement for each handicapped child developed in any meeting by a representative of the local educational agency or an intermediate educational unit who shall be qualified to provide, or supervise the provision of specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children, the teacher, the parents or guardians of such child, and, whenever appropriate, such child, which statement shall include (A) a statement of the present levels of educational performance of such child, (B) a statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objectives, (C) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to such child, and the extent to which such child will be able to participate in regular educational programs, (D) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services, and appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved.[8]

Testing procedures used for placing students who are handicapped in instructional programs must be selected and administered to assure racial and cultural fairness. All evaluations must be conducted prior to placing, transferring, or denying placement of students who are handicapped into special education programs or regular classes. The law requires the evaluations to include:

> . . . testing the child in his native language or mode of communication; using tests that are appropriately validated; having licensed personnel to administer the test; testing specific areas of educational need rather than focusing only on general intelligence; insuring that sensory and/or physical handicaps do not jeopordize their capability to demonstrate their aptitude and achievement level on the test; making the decision for educational placement on the basis of giving a minimum of two tests or types of tests; considering information concerning physical development, sociocultural background, and adaptive behavior in conjunction with test scores; setting up a *team* of persons in the school who possess knowledge about the child, the placement alternatives, and available resource personnel to interpret evaluation data in order to provide an appropriate education; and placing the student in a regular class if, according to the evaluation results, he does not require a special setting for his education.[9]

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[8] *Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975*, Sec. 4 (a) (19).

[9] Turnbull and Schulz, pp. 63–64.

Public Law 94-142 requires a multidisciplinary, cooperating team approach in all areas of program development for students who are handicapped—in identifying and locating handicapped students; in screening, assessing, and program placing; in instructional planning; and in evaluation. In planning IEP's, vocational educators should be part of the multidisciplinary, cooperating teams. Vocational educators may serve as team members or as resource persons providing input to the teams.

The California State Department of Education, Special Education Unit, has identified seven major parts of individualized education programs.[10] They are:

I. ***Student Identification***

  Student's name and ID number
  Parent's name
  Language used at home and how determined
  Birth date, chronological age, and grade

II. ***Assessment Information***

  Present levels of performance

III. ***Program Information***

  Program enrolled in, date and duration
  Rationale for placement
  Extent of regular class placement
  Additional support services, date and duration
  Type of PE program
  Types of prevocational and vocational programs

IV. ***Implementation Information***

  Learning style
  Learning situation
  Behavior strengths
  Talents and hobbies
  Special instructional media and materials
  Personnel responsible for implementation

V. ***Meeting Information***

  Meeting date
  Interpreter required
  Signatures of those present

VI. ***Long-Range Goals and Periodic Objectives***

VII. ***Short-Term Objectives***

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[10] *California Master Plan for Special Education.*

BILINGUAL AND MULTI-CULTURAL RELATED INSTRUCTION

Concerns among educators, including teacher-coordinators, about those students with limited-English or non-English proficiency have become more urgent as the number of immigrants, both legal and illegal, entering the United States each year continues to increase. The impact that the new immigration wave is having on schools is significantly different from years past. For example, in Los Angeles County, no longer are only the Los Angeles City Schools being invaded by the new arrivals but so are other cities and towns inside the county. The county of Los Angeles contains 82 towns and cities within its 4,043-square-mile boundaries. Of course, the largest city is the city of Los Angeles with 464 square miles. Nearly a third of the county is Hispanic, as are almost two-thirds of Los Angeles kindergartners. Of the 550,000 school children in Los Angeles, 117,000 speak 1 of 104 other languages better than they do English.

The importance of recognizing that the immigration invasion is impacting all of education, even if only in a small way, is crystallized when we are reminded that the winner of the 1985 National Spelling Bee was born in India, now lives in a suburb of Chicago, and speaks Tamil at home. Recently, West Point graduated the first Vietnamese-born Americans. As a matter of interest, Miss U.S.A. of 1985 was the first Hispanic and the first foreign-born contestant to win the title. Thus, a **multi-cultural learning environment** is likely to be needed in many related classes.

Although most vocational educators have little or no experience in working with minorities or so-called "culturally different" students (Blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans, and Asian-Americans), it is still possible to have a classroom setting that promotes multi-cultural education. Vocational educators must help vocational students to learn to respect cultural differences to be proud of their origins, to recognize the positive nature of our pluralistic society with its cultural and ethnic diversity, and to appreciate the contributions of all groups to the richness of our national culture. What teachers do in their individual classrooms may serve to break down stereotypes, promote multicultural understandings, and make a crucial difference in the personal development of many individual students. Vocational educators also must help their students to understand that the careless use of language and stereotyped prescriptions of people can hurt them and can limit their potential and that all individuals have varied characteristics not limited by sex, race, class, or ethnic background.

Many excellent sources of multi-cultural information are available in most communities to help vocational educators create a multi-cultural learning environment in vocational classes. Vocational educators should develop a list of possible contacts for materials, resources, and speakers. The local public library may have much of this information, which has already been compiled. If it does not, by using the telephone directory, vocational educators can begin to develop a list. Most national organizations, such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the National Conference of Christians and Jews, have branches in large cities. Looking also under the names of various ethnic groups, such as Chicano, Asian-American, Mexican-American, Native American, La Raza, Black, and Afro-American, can be beneficial in determining what services might be available by these groups in the community. Another source to get in touch with is the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Another important resource is local community colleges or universities. They should be contacted about possible ethnic studies departments or organizations for students of different ethnic backgrounds. Catalogs should be reviewed to determine whether courses are taught in the history or culture of a particular ethnic group. Often, the instructors of such courses can help locate more materials and information as well as provide contacts with other individuals in the community. Of course, these instructors are themselves potential resource persons who can be invited to speak to vocational classes.

In some communities, local service organizations may be an additional resource to address the special needs of minorities. The YWCA, the National

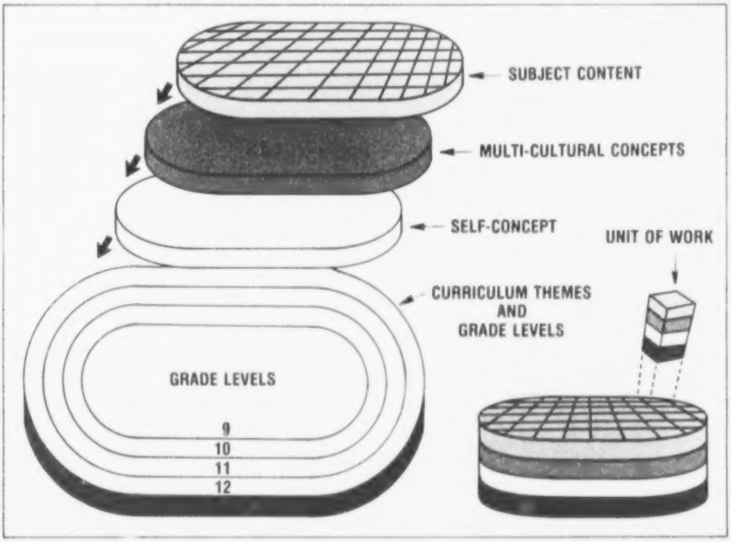

FIG. 10-3. Framework for curriculum units.

Organization for Women (NOW), the League of Women Voters, the Junior League, community centers, and other similar organizations should be contacted to determine if they offer special programs that might be useful. State teacher organizations, adult training and development programs, and state–county–city human relations commissions are all additional groups that might provide additional resources for bilingual vocational education classes.

All students have a need to achieve success. Bilingual students are no exception. Continued failure in school deprives them of satisfying that need. Some students fight back—they become overtly aggressive and rebellious. Others withdraw, stop trying, and become non-learners and dropouts. Vocational education must provide bilingual students with the competencies necessary for success in the world of work.

Most educators would agree that teaching students to value their own ethnic backgrounds, as well as to expand their awareness of other ethnic groups, should be an important objective of education. Teaching respect and appreciation for the cultural diversity that exists in our society should be an important objective in all classrooms.

Employing Suitable Methods, Media, and Materials

Most teacher-coordinators are either experienced teachers or beginning teachers who have had instruction in basic teaching methodology. Those teacher-coordinators who are new to teaching, like the experienced ones, need to keep in mind the participatory nature of vocational instruction. In particular, teacher-coordinators should use those methods that are really applicable to job situations, as well as those that relate to the optimum learning style of the learners. They should understand that vocational students, especially those on the job, want instruction that is meaningful to them in their daily work situations.

Committees.—Student-learners should learn to work with others in small as well as in large groups. Time can be saved and educational value can be derived if the class is broken up into committees for certain phases of the work. Whenever possible, students should be permitted to choose the committees on which they work. However, at times the teacher-coordinator should shift committee members to develop greater leadership and followership.

Discussions.—A class discussion, with emphasis on questions posed by the teacher-coordinator, may yield a list of study topics when a new area of study is introduced. A stimulating class discussion needs to follow brief lectures, reading assignments, and other activities. Generally, a lecture by the coordinator of longer than 20 to 30 minutes will not be productive in the basic instructional period. Informal class discussions should help students to develop tolerance of and respect for the viewpoints of other class members and for the experiences of others at their training stations.

Dramatic presentations.—Attention-getting through unique ways of presenting information appeals to many students. Examples are radio or television skits, mock programs of various types, role playing, and demonstrations. Students should understand that they should not be primarily concerned with the dramatics involved; content is more important than dramatic ability. Many students participate more readily when they know that they will not be judged as actors.

Panels.—Panels should be carefully planned, and students should be instructed in the techniques of panel discussions. A panel should consist of from three to five members. The chairperson introduces the problem, states the issue or problem involved, recognizes the various members, directs the discussion, and summarizes the points made. Each member must be familiar with the topic and be prepared on all issues to be discussed. Each member must be prepared to answer questions from the rest of the group (class). The teacher-coordinator observes the same rules of audience participation as the other students and, in general, does not "talk."

Reports.—Talks from the floor by individual students help students to learn to speak in a logical and interesting manner and help the group to develop good listening habits. Reports must be well prepared, and an individual giving a report must have something to say; reports should be said and not read; and the group should be held responsible for the information given in the report. Coordinators have found that reports on basic information from current periodicals or trade magazines or observations at work are useful.

Current news items.—A current newspaper item or an announcement on the radio or on TV can become the focal point for a topic of interest to vocational students. A fire in a local business establishment, a negotiated labor dispute, a new technological development, the opening of an industry in the neighborhood might all serve as good launching topics for further study and discussion. Students must be directed toward gaining specific points from the discussion, or much time may be wasted. Therefore, a summary statement and perhaps a quiz on the material are helpful in driving home certain points.

Field trips.—Field trips are not a necessity for cooperative students who work every day, but they do help students see other businesses. They also assist in broadening the experiences of student-learners who may be having rather narrow training station experiences. Field trips must be well planned to places unlike those of the students' training stations. A trip must be a natural outgrowth of classroom discussion, or it must be an activity to stimulate interest in a topic. After the reason for a trip has been identified, the place should be selected. Then a committee of students should either write or visit the owner, asking for permission to visit. The industry or place of business should be alerted as to what will be of interest to the students and what the students should know. A previous visit by the teacher will aid the students in identifying what they should look for. The class members should agree on the factors that will be investigated and should be encouraged to prepare questions. The visit should be followed by a thorough discussion of what was seen, why operations were performed as they were, and what should be the next logical step in the development of the topic. The student committee should write a short letter thanking the business establishment for permitting the students to make the visit.

Resource persons (guest speakers).—Resource persons broaden the experiences of student-learners. Credit managers, store managers, bankers, social security personnel, farm bureau managers, health center directors, hospital managers, nurses, office managers, and tax accountants are potential resource persons. A student committee should invite the guests to speak to the class, explaining what would be expected of them and what the class would be studying. After an individual has accepted the invitation to speak to the class, he/she should be given a specific subject to talk about and should be alerted to some of the specifics that the class would like described. The class prepares by identifying areas in which its members need information. The class members should be encouraged to write out questions prior to the appearance of a speaker and, of course, to ask questions after the speaker's presentation, which should be followed by a discussion of the points that were brought out and an identification of the implications of the remarks. Shortly after the speaker's presentation, a student committee should write a thank-you note to the speaker.

Classroom reference library.—Because of the nature of specific instruction and the resultant need for individual study, a classroom library of current periodicals, manufacturers' materials, reference books, and individual resource manuals must be available in the classroom for student-learners. References such as a dictionary, an encyclopedia, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, and the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* should be included. Contemporary collections have trade magazines. Developing skills in judging the reliability of published information and being able to disregard propaganda or unsound ideas and concepts are paramount. Students must learn to take notes on their readings in some systematic and usable form. They must learn to record accurately their data and their sources of information and to make their notes brief and succinct.

Staff resource person.—The team-teaching approach can accommodate certain needs of student-learners. Another member of the faculty may be invited to present specific concepts or specialized skills. A case in point would be to have the home economics teacher present information on color, line, and design to a marketing education class. In turn, the marketing education teacher-coordinator might appear before the home economics class to present aids to wise buying.

Chalkboard, flannelboard, bulletin board.—Teacher-coordinators must be ready to use the most practical visual aids to assist in teaching student-learners. The chalkboard is the old standby, too infrequently used by some teacher-coordinators to explain a point. The other two techniques, using a flannelboard and using a portable bulletin board, have been found to fill the needs of teacher-coordinators who must move from room to room or who must share a room with other teachers. By having a flannelboard or a portable bulletin board (one that folds together), the teacher-coordinator may arrange displays of materials the day before a class presentation and then carry them in for use.

Overhead projector.—The overhead projector is a visual aid that motivates, teaches, and grades. There are many methods and devices that, in themselves, motivate, teach, and grade. The projector, however, has an additional advantage. In even the most diversified of situations, an element of routine is likely to creep in; the projector is most effective not only in motivating and teaching students but also in reducing the monotony of routine. The teacher-coordinator gets the job done, and the class enjoys the change of pace. By using a grease pencil for writing or by running the material to be copied and the transparency through a reproducer or a photocopier, the teacher-coordinator can easily prepare transparencies for the overhead projector.

Films, filmstrips, slides, and tape recorders.—For launching a new topic, these help to arouse interest, to provide direction for the development of a unit, to raise important issues, and to give students a common background for analyzing the area to be studied. If carefully selected and previewed for accuracy and recency of material, these can serve as excellent supplementary resources for a unit or a topic of study. The audiocassette recorder is especially useful. Because many students have them at home, they can borrow tapes to take home to study.

Video camera.—With the availability of classroom television sets and videotape players in schools, teacher-coordinators can, without much difficulty, prepare and show videotapes within the related classroom. Mock interviews, simulations on human relation subjects, correct operation of various equipment, and field trips to business and industry could be filmed. With teacher guidance, students should be able to plan and tape the video programs.

Interactive video.—One of the most fascinating technological developments in education today is the interactive video. While not inexpensive, it is a powerful instructional tool. It consists of a microcomputer and a videotape (or video disk) player coupled together. Instructional packages, developed by a special authoring system, permit the instructional program to go back and forth between the computer and the video system. The computer can deliver directions, background information, test questions, etc. The sound—voices from a scene, background music—is delivered on the audiotrack of the videotape or disk. The key to the system is interaction—students respond to the instruction, and the program leads them, step by step, through an entire learning process. The most significant feature of the interaction is the branching that is available. A student may respond to a question that follows instruction in a number of ways, giving the right answer or any one of several wrong answers. The program is designed so that each response brings about appropriate but different instruction. In other words, individualized remediation is immediate for each student who gives an incorrect response. The student who gives the correct answer is simply routed on to the next instructional segment.

Microcomputers.—There certainly appears to be no end in sight to the power and versatility of the microcomputer, and prices continue to drop as dozens of new and exciting features are added. Indeed, microcomputers have become an important teaching tool. There are hundreds of programs, some of them still in somewhat primitive form, in which students can drill, practice, and learn basic skills in math, word usage, spelling, reading, punctuation, capitalization, and decision-making. Not only do capable students like to complete work on the computer but also less able students like to drill and practice on the computer because they can set their own learning pace. Many of the skill development programs let students select a level of difficulty from a half dozen available levels. Computer instruction is individualized.

INSTRUCTIONAL EQUIPMENT AND FACILITIES

Specialized facilities and instructional equipment are needed in vocational instruction. These will naturally vary, depending on the occupational areas being taught. Recommendations for specialized laboratories for cooperative programs in the various occupational areas are given in Chapters 17 through 22.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

For effective instruction in almost every school subject, students should have access to instructional materials that supplement the text. In an occupational training program, a library of instructional materials is vital to keeping the instruction attuned to the business and industrial world and in aiding students to progress toward their individual career goals. Because each student has individual needs, additional materials that describe operations and products in various occupational areas should be supplied. A cooperative occupational education classroom should have shelving and filing space for instructional materials of the following kind: (1) supplementary textbooks and occupational handbooks, (2) occupational guidance materials, (3) trade journals, (4) product information, (5) job operations information, and (6) audiotapes.

A coordinator's filing system will accommodate many of the materials just listed and will fit any occupational area.

Many beginning coordinators wonder how to establish an instructional materials collection. There are several sources of help. First, the coordinator should request from his/her administrator an annual instructional materials budget. A minimum allotment of $30 to $35 per student will finance a basic collection of instructional materials in a new program, particularly if the coordinator will concentrate on obtaining free and inexpensive materials. An annual budget of $15 to $20 per student is needed in an established program. A good source of materials is the employers in the community. Many of them have copies of trade and professional publications, which they would donate to the school if requested to do so by the coordinator. The coordinator could remind students in the cooperative program to ask employers for copies of brochures, product information leaflets, and employee instructional handbooks with their earnings; many times students will donate these to the school when they graduate. On coordination visits, the coordinator should also be alert to acquiring instructional materials from employers, who will probably donate them if asked.

Experienced teacher-coordinators know the joy of teaching subject matter that is dynamic and everchanging. These coordinators recognize that a major element of good teaching is to treat the community as their classroom. Effective teachers have learned that the learning of their students is enhanced when they can apply new knowledge to their surroundings. The development of a resource file is a must for effective related instruction. A resource file is a systematic file of all the materials, activities, community resources, etc., that the teacher-coordinator might utilize in teaching various topics ordinarily included in the related class. Such a file could contain the audio-visual materials that the teacher-coordinator might use; effective past bulletin board displays that are being saved for the future, as well as ideas and materials for new bulletin boards; the names and telephone numbers of laypersons who might serve as resource speakers; samples of various business forms that are being used locally; newspaper and periodical clippings that have been brought to class by the teacher and students to be shared; and potential sites for field trips.

The resource file should be well organized. The teacher-coordinator should begin with a few broad subject matter topics. After a resource file has been started, it can be expanded and refined over the years. As time and experience permit, the general categories can be subdivided into more specific topics. Once begun, the teacher-coordinator should periodically review the contents of the file to assure that the information is up-to-date.

Research on Instruction

Sources covering instructional studies in all vocational areas, published quarterly, contain the major vocational–technical items entered into the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) system of the U.S. Department of Education, *Abstracts of Instructional Materials in Vocational and Technical Education* (A.I.M.) and *Abstracts of Research Materials in Vocational and Technical Education* (A.R.M.). Other suggestions are given in the Bibliography.

Questions and Activities

1. Identify three students with career goals, each in a different occupational family. For each student, identify (list) competencies that would fall into each of the three learning categories—general related, directly related, and supplementary. State any assumptions you make in defining the situations of these students.
2. Define the term "correlation" and explain why it is so important to the cooperative plan of instruction.

3. Outline a case of one student—the student's background learnings, career goals, and training station. List under the three headings—"Need to Know," "Desirable to Know," and "Nice to Know"—the learnings that fit this case and each category.
4. Explain the difference between a specific occupational competency and a specific job competency. Give examples under each for the student in the case above.
5. For the student described in the case in No. 3, prepare an outline of the learning units arranged by a time sequence throughout the cooperative related class for a year. For convenience, try using three-week periods of instruction to show the timing of the student's needs.
6. In planning instruction, how can the teacher-coordinator use performance goals?
7. Prepare a list of reference materials you would put on a requisition list if you were starting a new cooperative plan. Assuming that the whole list will not be approved, which of those do you consider to be imperative?
8. Explain the effect that using the cooperative plan as a capstone method instead of as a self-contained curriculum has on related instruction.
9. Arrange to interview a local vocational educator at the secondary or post-secondary level. Develop a set of questions to ask during the interview regarding on-going "mainstreaming" practices in the school.
10. Assume you are a teacher-coordinator who has three students with limited-English proficiency enrolled in your cooperative plan. Although they are employed and appear to be doing well on their jobs, they are having some problems adjusting to their new culture. Prepare an instructional unit that you can use in the related class to assist these three students.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

11

Developing Training Stations as Instructional Laboratories

Each job station becomes an educational experience when the teacher-coordinator and the job supervisor exchange ideas on training plan elements.

KEY CONCEPT: *The training plan is essential for making the training station experience educational for the student.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Distinguish between different types of training learning stations.
- Understand how to develop training stations for specific student-learner training objectives.
- Understand how to develop training stations that will provide opportunities for student-learners to pursue career objectives.

KEY TERMS

job development
step-by-step training plan
Targeted Jobs Tax Credit
training agreement
work exploration

The cooperative plan is based on the premise that the world of work has the capacity to provide educational experiences on the job that will reinforce and supplement the in-school instruction. If this premise is correct, the educational institution must take steps to assure that training stations provide more than normal *coaching* in company techniques, which they do for all employees. The educational institution must insure that quality controls are built in, which assures parents, the administration, and others that training stations are accorded sufficient school supervision to warrant the conclusion that the students are progressing toward their career goals and are benefiting from the welding together of their in-school instruction and their on-the-job laboratory practice. If these quality controls are not assured, the experience at work becomes only a release of time from school for students to profit from whatever values and income the act of working for pay has for them.

The first task for coordinators is to select and develop training stations appropriate to each student-learner's needs. Coordinators must clearly understand their role in the process of training station development. The word "development" is the key—it is not easily understood by many school personnel.

Developing Different Types of Learning Stations

Anyone who wishes to use an actual job to accommodate a student's learning needs must be a planner-manager. In simple terms, the management exercise is to: (1) ***determine*** the learning goals, (2) ***decide*** what type of training station is needed, and (3) ***develop*** (find or create) such a situation with a minimal investment of resources. Coordinators consider the basic set of learning experiences each student may need and the corollary set of developmental situations available in a given job. These basic types of developmental learning situations are:

1. Work exploration
2. Personal and work adjustment
3. Work-study motivation and income
4. Occupational application and skills development
5. Professional internship

THE CONCEPT OF JOB DEVELOPMENT

The term "job development," used primarily in the MDTA programs of the 1960's, in the CETA programs of the 1970's, and more recently in the JTPA programs, has two basic meanings to the vocational educator. They are:

1. To find positions in businesses that will provide the learning experiences needed by students and that will convince businesspersons that they will benefit by cooperating.
2. To create jobs for students who are ready after preliminary training to enter the labor market on a full-time basis.

Thus, **job development** is the act of creating jobs (training opportunities, part-time employment, or full-time employment) that did not exist or whose existence was not known to the school. Job development is an aggressive, not a passive, function. Coordinators must distinguish it from the mere matching of trainees with existing part-time jobs. Certainly it is far more than the filling of an employer request for "someone to work part time." The filling of an employer request for a ***trainee*** rather than a part-time worker can represent much past effort by a coordinator in job development. In such cases, occupational coordinators may have put in much effort, even over a period of two to three years, in convincing employers of the merit of the plan. The distinction just made points out that effective plans cannot exist with so-called "desk coordinators" who are "telephone order-takers," accepting employer requests at the convenience of the employers and fitting students to those requirements.

A tax credit eligibility of cooperative education employers or a wage adjustment for handling a trainee means that coordinators can be more aggresive in job development activities, such as the development of training plans. If an employer is approved for a tax credit or a wage adjustment, that employer should be willing to provide an educational experience at the training station.[1]

Aggressive job development can assure meaningful cooperation with employers who understand their part in the educational process. Job development obviously occurs when a student's career choice becomes known or when the choice shifts and a move from one training station to another is dictated. But, even after all the trainees have been placed, job development must continue so that training stations for the future can be uncovered. Unfortunately, and all too frequently, overloaded or lazy coordinators do not continue the job development function. Thus, having a new group of trainees will result in one of the following: frantically scrambling at the last minute to find stations, indiscriminately approving any jobs the students can find, or using the same stations over and over again without any real regard for the students' career goals.

It is most important that the heavy resource input to job development be known and understood by the coordinator's administrators. They must be aware of the need for the many hours involved in such an activity, or they will see the coordinator merely as a placement officer. A descriptive coordinator's log is a useful communications tool with the administration.

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[1] Current state and federal laws need to be checked to determine if tax credits or wage adjustments are available to approved cooperative education employers.

TARGETED JOBS TAX CREDIT

Employers can take the **Targeted Jobs Tax Credit** to reduce their federal income tax. The credit provides an incentive to hire persons from certain targeted groups that have a particularly high unemployment rate or other special employment needs. The credit may only be taken for wages incurred or paid to members of targeted groups.

For eligible employees hired before January 1, 1986, the following rules apply. Credit is limited to 50 percent of the first $6,000 of wages paid or incurred for each eligible employee during that employee's first year of work. Also, credit can be taken for 25 percent of the first $6,000 of wages paid or incurred for that employee during the second year of work. For a qualified summer youth employee, credit is limited to 85 percent of the first $3,000 of wages paid to that employee for work done in any 90-day period between May 1 and September 15 of the same calendar year.

For eligible employees hired after December 31, 1985, and before January 1, 1989, new rules are in effect. Credit is limited to 40 percent of the qualified first-year wages. There is no longer a credit for any second-year wages. In addition, credit cannot be taken on wages paid to an eligible employee who works for less than 90 days or 120 hours (14 days or 20 hours in the case of a qualified summer youth).

Wages paid to an employee in any tax year will qualify for the credit only if more than one-half of the wages are for work done in the trade or business.

Credit cannot be used to reduce tax liability below zero. Any unused credit can be carried back 3 tax years or forward 15 tax years.

For the employer to take this credit, the employee must be certified as a member of a targeted group. An individual is a member of a targeted group if that individual is one of the following: (1) a vocational rehabilitation referral, (2) an economically disadvantaged youth, (3) an economically disadvantaged Vietnam-era veteran, (4) a Supplemental Security Income (SSI) recipient, (5) a general assistance recipient, (6) a youth participating in a cooperative, occupational education plan, (7) an economically disadvantaged former public offender, (8) an eligible work incentive employee, or (9) a qualified summer youth employee.

Certification must be made by the designated local agency or, in the case of a cooperative education student, by the participating school. Designated agencies are local offices of state employment security agencies (job services).

Credit cannot be claimed for wages paid to a relative.

EDUCATIONAL RELUCTANCE TO JOB DEVELOPMENT

Some educators are loathe to engage in aggressive, hard-selling job development. They are reluctant to try to overcome employer resistance to the young person who has a poor record, who has had brushes with the law, or who in other ways does not fit the employer's image of what a "good" student should be. Furthermore, many educators are not inclined to try to overcome the employers' hiring restrictions on minority groups and disadvantaged and/or handicapped persons. Such persons justify this reluctance by pointing out that (1) the school's role is not to quarrel with local mores or rules or (2) employer support for the school will be lost and the past goodwill be damaged. In contrast, educators must believe that the school exists for the student's needs, which are the coordinator's priority. Thus, coordinators, while respecting employer opinion, must work very aggressively to bring about change. If individuals do not have the inner toughness and the persistence to engage in job development, they should not become occupational coordinators or work experience directors. There are many other satisfying roles in the school in which individuals do not have to face such problems.

TECHNIQUES OF JOB DEVELOPMENT AND JOB PLACEMENT

The techniques used in job development are similar for work exploration stations, cooperative training stations, and permanent job placement. Only the immediate plan objectives and the emphasis used in each phase differ. Coordinators find the following techniques of job development useful in working with employers.

1. Always contact the "decision-maker" within a company first. A directive should come "from the top down" stating the company's participation in the cooperative plan, rather than requiring you to work up through the ranks. If a person in the personnel department, for example, tells you the company is not interested in being involved, this person will be antagonized when the decision is made by the top person that the company will participate. Since the individual in the personnel department will have to carry out the decision, having that person in favor of the plan would be best.
2. Show the employer that you have the company's interests, as well as the trainee's interests, at heart.
3. Always talk in terms of a particular trainee, not the plan.
4. Discuss specific aspects of a problem with the employer and deal with problems one at a time, for example, hiring restrictions.

5. Use all job resources available—employers, state employment service, wholesale distributors, instructors, personal contacts, successfully placed trainees, and the advisory committee members.
6. Convince the employer of the value of employee upgrading.
7. Assist the employer in redefining jobs where applicable.
8. Explain to the employer that you will assist with any problems that may arise relative to the trainee.
9. Relieve the employer of the burden of "firing" the trainee. Before the trainee is "hired," assure the employer of your help in a situation like this.

Caution: Do not "oversell" a trainee; be honest, yet optimistic.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING TRAINING STATIONS

The following are some criteria to be used in the selection of a training station.

Type of occupation: The training station should provide experience in occupations that require both skills and knowledges.

Career goal: The training station should be directly relevant to the career goal of the student.

Opportunities for rotation: The training station should provide a wide variety of direct experiences associated with the occupation. It should not merely be routine work experience of a repetitive nature.

On-the-job supervision: The training station should be supervised by someone competent in the skills and technical aspects of the occupation. The supervisor should be interested and eager to assist in the training program.

Working conditions: The working conditions of training stations should be safe; the stations should have a good record of accident prevention.

Reputation: Establishments that furnish training stations should have a reputation of ethical business practices in the community.

Hours of employment: There should be a sufficient number of working hours (average 15 hours per week for the school year) at the training station.

Facilities and equipment: Up-to-date facilities and equipment should be used at the training station.

Supervisor and student-trainee: Good supervisor and student-trainee relationships should exist at the training station.

Location: Consideration should be given to the travel time between the school and the training station.

Wages: Consideration should be given to a minimum wage for the student-trainee, based on that paid other employees of similar experience and training. Tax credit eligibility may be taken into account.

CASE-IN-POINT

"Selling" a Trainee

David Williams is the teacher-coordinator for a marketing education program in a metropolitan area school. His apparent success in his first three years has been due partially to the contacts he has made in promoting marketing education and the trainees in his community. He has given several presentations before community organizations; he has written articles for local newspapers showing the trainees' successes in the program. He visits training stations frequently. He maintains excellent rapport with his students.

For this school year he is the teacher-coordinator for 22 students. One of the trainees in his program is John Turner, an over-age black 19-year-old.

During the past three years, David has been successful in placing four trainees in the cooperative training laboratory of Seth Wyman, the owner of a high-quality men's apparel store in a large shopping center. Mr. Wyman has appeared to be favorably impressed with these four trainees and their contributions to his work force. Two of them have stayed with his firm in permanent positions. Since Mr. Wyman has never had a black employee, David is aware that this particular case must be handled with care. Before he asks Mr. Wyman to consider John as a cooperative trainee, he feels it is important to have the two meet, perhaps for one or two "exploration" sessions. This would give Mr. Wyman a chance to talk with John, and it would also give John an opportunity to "explore" apparel retailing as a definite career goal.

After two of these sessions, a noticeable rapport seems to be developing between Mr. Wyman and John. When approached with the idea, Mr. Wyman replies that he has already noticed many of the good qualities that John has—interest, punctuality, good attendance—qualities that are important to his business. Both agree that a two-week try-out would be good for both parties.

In job-development activities teacher-coordinators should keep in mind the criteria and select the jobs that meet these criteria.

The preceding case-in-point illustrates one way in which a coordinator can "sell" an employer on the value of having a trainee, no matter what employment handicap that trainee may have. But in a case like this, the coordinator must be prepared and able to deal with any objections the employer might have and be able to "sell" the value of having this ***particular*** trainee.

DEVELOPING WORK EXPLORATION STATIONS

Work exploration experience provides students with temporary exposure to work, as they are placed in exploratory situations to observe and to assist in occupational areas in which they have indicated an interest or have shown an aptitude. These situations can take place in any combination of time sequences convenient for the employers and for the school. For instance, the trainees may be released from school for two afternoons a week for three weeks, for a week during vacation, for half-days for a nine-week quarter, during a summer session, or other combinations.

There can be no set formula for determining the amount of released time for work exploration, and it need not be during normal school hours or days. Coordinators must provide a sufficient time span for the work situation to allow the trainees to observe and evaluate their jobs adequately. A counseling period or related class to assist students in relating the experience to themselves is advised.

"SELLING" EMPLOYERS ON WORK EXPLORATION

In order to have effective work exploration plans, coordinators must "sell" the idea of developing work exploration stations to employers. Although there will be concern about the cost, the responsibilities to be borne, and the experiences the students should have on the job, most employers are interested in young people and want to give them a chance. Coordinators should stress that:

1. The development of a work exploration station involves no monetary cost to the employers; the trainees will participate in one or more exploration activities at various times throughout the training program.
2. The "buddy" system will relieve employers of much of the supervision.
3. Work exploration activity guidelines will be prepared and ready for employers to use. These show what experiences are desired.

4. The experience gives employers the opportunity to observe potential employees without commitment; it also provides a way to contribute to the betterment of the community.
5. This kind of experience requires no complicated reports or documents for employers to fill out.
6. Work exploration is one way for employers to really help unemployed adults or young students who do not know where they want to go.
7. The school's coordinator will provide supervision of the trainees as needed.

DEVELOPING WORK EXPLORATION ACTIVITY GUIDELINES

Coordinators must be concerned with the time involved in the work exploration experience as well as with the activities of trainees during that time. Probably the first question (and a possible objection) an employer will have will be "What do you want the trainee to do and see?" Employers seldom have time to sit down and write out work exploration activity plans. Therefore, coordinators must provide employers with at least the skeleton of such a plan. One selling point to an employer, then, will be that the coordinator will help develop an activity guideline so that all that is needed during the work exploration phase is to follow it. By following an activity plan, the coordinator and the employer accomplish another objective—that of assuring the trainee of a complete and informative experience.

A set of exploration activity guidelines for a kitchen worker are suggestions for work exploration experiences in one occupational area. Similar guidelines can be developed for other occupational areas. What is presented here is merely a suggestion for making the work exploration experiences of trainees as meaningful as possible.

EXPLORATION ACTIVITY GUIDELINE—Kitchen Worker

To the employer: This trainee is an individual who has expressed an initial interest in your field. Work exploration is designed to help the student make a wise choice, according to his/her interests and aptitudes for future vocational training. Since this may be your first experience in this type of plan and the trainee's only chance to observe, the following is a proposed exploration plan for three hours each afternoon after school, for four days.

We hope these suggestions will help you in organizing and conducting this exploration.

(Continued)

EXPLORATION ACTIVITY GUIDELINE Continued

DAY 1: ***Orientation***

1. Tour of kitchen and storage areas.
2. Introduction to those individuals the trainee will be working with.
3. Explanation of the skills needed for an ***entry*** job.
4. Opportunity for the trainee (if possible) to observe, relate, and work for one person. The trainer should be an interested, patient, considerate individual.
5. Explanation of the importance of cleanliness.
6. Demonstration of the daily routine you go through to keep things sanitary.
7. Opportunity for the trainee to become acquainted with various kitchen appliances—toasters, fryers, dishwashers, etc.
8. Opportunity for the trainee to help with kitchen cleanliness.
9. Opportunity for the trainee to work with the *vegetable cook*.

DAY 2: ***Operations***

1. Opportunity for the trainee to work with the *sandwich maker*.
2. Opportunity for the trainee to work with the *coffee maker*.

DAY 3: ***Operations***

1. Explanation of kitchen safety.
2. Opportunity for the trainee to work with the *pastry maker*.

DAY 4: ***Operations***

1. Opportunity for the trainee to work with the *salad maker*.
2. Demonstration in kitchen cleanup.

We appreciate your making this opportunity available. Your trainee will be one of several individuals. Personalities may range from shy and untrusting to extremely aggressive. An individual may fit in quickly or may never feel at home. Whichever it may prove to be, this person is interested in the work and could be a possible future employee.

If you have any questions, please call me at ____________.

/s/____________________

Sue Polacheck

Organizing Training Stations

If potential training stations meet the criteria of the educational institution for providing the needed instruction and supervision, the steps in finalizing the selections and organizing them into directed training laboratories can be taken. The first step is the assurance that the employees at the training stations exhibit at least a minimal awareness and understanding of the agreements between the employers, the school administrators, the coordinator, and the prospective student-learners. Everyone concerned must understand that training stations are to serve primarily as a training medium rather than merely as an opportunity for remunerative employment for the students or for employers to obtain part-time help. This is paramount!

When everyone involved understands the training role, steps in organizing the training stations can be taken. These are:

1. Solidifying with management and employees the purposes of the cooperative plan and the relative importance of learnings at school and on the job.
2. Setting work schedules.
3. Developing a specific training plan keyed to the short- and long-range needs of each student.
   a. Concluding a training agreement.
   b. Preparing a step-by-step training plan.
4. Designating and training training sponsors.
5. Maintaining legal and ethical employment.

SOLIDIFYING THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE PLAN

Before employers interview students for possible employment, the coordinator should explain to each employer the following responsibilities and conditions regarding training stations.

1. The cooperative plan is a training plan and not a school employment agency and that the firms will be asked to help the student-learners with some individual study assignments.
2. Employers are considered to be partners in the training plan and should assist the school by providing planned occupational experiences and on-the-job instruction.
3. Training stations are to provide on the average at least 15 hours of employment a week throughout the school year, preferably at least

half of this time during the released school time of the student-learners,[2] according to standards set by the school.

4. Frequently, minimum wage, according to state and/or federal laws, will be paid to student-learners and this amount may not always be increased proportionate to their productivity.
5. Candidates for part-time employment have had vocational counseling at the school during which they have determined ***tentative career objectives***.
6. Student-learners are enrolled in related classes at the school, where they receive instruction directly related to their work activities and occupational objectives.
7. Student-learners should have opportunities to move from one specific job activity to another in order to gain various experiences leading to their occupational goals.
8. Student-learners should be given the same employment status as that of other part-time employees in matters of social security, insurance, and labor laws (union contracts should be checked).
9. The coordinator will visit the student-learners, observe their job performance, suggest to their employers or their sponsors sound methods of on-the-job training, and determine the job activities to which classroom instruction should be related.
10. Periodic ratings based on the job performance of the student-learners will be made by their employers or their sponsors and reported to the coordinator.

SETTING WORK SCHEDULES

The on-the-job schedule for each student should be arranged with consideration given to:

1. The student's training needs and an opportunity to participate in various business operations when competent supervisory personnel are on duty.
2. The employer's staffing situation and need for maintaining productivity.
3. The student's need for rest and time for other responsibilities as a student, as an individual, and as a member of a family.
4. Legal employment laws.

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[2] The minimum requirement for hours of employment in a training station may differ from state to state according to the guidelines of each state's department of education.

5. Opportunity for the teacher-coordinator to observe the student on the job and to confer with the training sponsor, bearing in mind the contractual agreements regarding employment of school personnel.

A specified number of working hours each week should be established for all cooperative student-learners. The suggested minimum is 15 and the maximum 25, because total hours of employment and school attendance should preferably not exceed 40 hours per week and certainly not more than 48 hours per week. Weekend and nighttime hours are counted in this total just as are school-day hours. At one time school personnel believed that the student-learner should not be expected to work earlier than the start of the school day nor later than 5:30 or 6:00 p.m., the usual closing hours in most firms. But work-hour and work-week schedules have changed greatly in some industries, especially those in the marketing sector. And, as the cooperative plan has expanded into new industrial and health occupations areas, the weekend and night shifts are being used. The important point in arranging schedules is not the time or the day; rather it is the aforementioned criteria, as well as the school's primary responsibility to provide a quality educational experience at the training station. Consultation with the school administration and the advisory committee is recommended to determine whether each schedule is in the best interest of the student and is conducive to the student's welfare.

DEVELOPING SPECIFIC TRAINING KEYED TO CAREER OBJECTIVES

One of the most important steps in the proper establishment of a training station is that of preparing a written plan of training. The development of a **step-by-step training plan** for a particular student brings the student face to face with the problem of determining an ultimate vocational objective and deciding what competencies must be developed. Through the training plan the employer also becomes more definitely aware of the student-learner's occupational goal and is encouraged to lead the student toward an objective by providing adequate work activities and on-the-job instruction.

Concluding a training agreement.[1] — A **training agreement** would normally include at least the following information:

1. Names of student-learner, employer, business establishment, school, training sponsor or supervisor, coordinator, and parents.
2. Dates of beginning and end of training period.

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[1] See Figure 11-2.

3. Beginning rate of pay, proposed scale of increases during the school year, and working hours.
4. Statement of student's career objective, including a brief description of the skills, attitudes, and information necessary for a worker in the occupation.
5. List of job activities that will contribute to the student's progress toward a career objective (at least the areas of experience and training).
6. Brief outline of the related classroom instruction that will be provided at school (at least the major areas of subject matter).
7. Responsibilities of the student-learner, the employer, and the school to the training plan.

Preparing a step-by-step training plan.—Sound instruction will be enhanced if the coordinator prepares a step-by-step training plan.

1. The coordinator carefully explains to the employer and the student-learner the purposes of a training plan and the procedures for developing one.
2. The coordinator, the employer, and the student-learner cooperatively list the skills, attitudes, and information needed for a successful career in the student-learner's chosen occupation.[4]
3. The coordinator, the employer, and the student-learner develop a list of work activities that should contribute during the school year to the student-learner's progress ***toward*** the occupation objective.
4. The coordinator, the employer, and the student-learner list the knowledges and skills needed by the student-learner in performing the work activities referred to in number 3.
5. The coordinator, the employer, and the student-learner cooperatively determine a plan for putting numbers 3 and 4 into action.

A complete training plan is a combination of the training agreement and the step-by-step training plan. It has already been stated that the teacher-coordinator should identify the areas of experience and training available to a prospective student-learner in a prospective training station. Student-learners, because of a wide range of capabilities and career objectives, will vary in the amount of diversity they need on the job.

Expressing training plans in behavioral terms.—***A statement of student-trainee learning objectives*** (**SSLO**) is a possible alternative to the traditional training plan (see Figure 11-1).[5] The SSLO combines the behavioral learning objectives concept employed by educators and the management by objectives tool used by business and industry. This plan changes the role of the coordinator from one of prescribing beneficial, on-the-job learning experiences to one of facilitating the development of learning objectives derived by both students and employers. The student's role changes from a passive one to an active one under the SSLO, as the student is actively involved in determining what learning will take place during a certain period of time.

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[4] In some states, training plans are printed for all occupations, and the activities in the plan appropriate to a given student-learner are checked off.

Under this concept, each cooperative student is treated on an individualized basis. Consequently, each student-trainee has a unique set of learning objectives for his/her job. The coordinator's task is to spend a sufficient amount of time in dialogue with each student-trainee so as to be able to help determine the objectives appropriate to the needs of each student.

Implementation Schedule for the SSLO

First Meeting Between Student-Trainee and Coordinator *(This meeting should take place after the student has started to work.)*

Coordinator gives the student-trainee two copies of the SSLO, a set of sample objectives from the student's vocational field, and instructions on how to write meaningful job-oriented learning objectives. The first copy of the SSLO is a working copy for the student's practice use.

Coordinator instructs the student-trainee to review these materials and then to meet with the employer to gather ideas concerning meaningful objectives for the evaluation period.

Coordinator requests that the student-trainee formulate 10 tentative objectives to accomplish during the evaluation period.

Second Meeting Between Student-Trainee and Coordinator

Coordinator reviews tentative objectives with the student-trainee to determine their appropriateness and whether or not they are measurable.

Coordinator must help the student-trainee realize that the objectives identified at this meeting constitute the major criteria for determining the student's grade for this evaluation period.

Coordinator encourages the student-trainee to think of objectives in terms of resultant behavior, or what he/she will be able to do after learning has been accomplished (for example, achieve cleaner and safer work areas, be on time to work at all times during the evaluation period, be able to identify at least 10 selling benefits of latex paint, etc.) If objectives are stated in terms of desired results, then the criteria for measurement are incorporated into the statement.

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[5] The SSLO material here and the training form shown in Figure 11-1 originated with Dr. William A. Stull, Utah State University, Logan.

For an objective to be valid, the student-trainee must have control over its accomplishment. The student-trainee should choose objectives that can be achieved within the confines of his/her particular job.

After the coordinator has had input into objectives, the student-trainee is requested to review these objectives again with the employer. This step provides for reality testing.

Coordinator requests the student-trainee to bring back in several days a rather finalized list of objectives that have been discussed with the employer. (Student-trainee uses second copy of the SSLO for these.)

First Meeting Between Coordinator and Employers

Coordinator makes appointment with employers specifically to discuss and articulate the SSLO. The coordinator should probably ask if employers are familiar with the SSLO concept and whether or not they have spent any time helping student-trainees write objectives.

Coordinator reviews objectives with employers to determine their appropriateness, whether or not some possible learning objectives have been omitted, and whether or not employers will give student-trainees an opportunity to accomplish these objectives.

Employers must validate objectives. They must insure that the objectives are measurable and within the job descriptions of the student-trainees. At this point in time the employer may suggest changes in objectives or additional objectives that could be completed. The coordinator should make sure that the employers are aware that these objectives constitute the major criteria for determining the student-trainees' grades.

Coordinator and each employer adjust, add to, and generally agree on the objectives for this evaluation period. The coordinator and each employer sign the SSLO. The coordinator requests that the employer review with the student, have the student sign, and request that the student return the SSLO form to the coordinator. A brief explanation of the evaluation process would be appropriate during this visit.

Mid-Term Visit—Evaluation

Coordinator reviews progress on the SSLO with student-trainee and employer. Student and employer are asked to evaluate independently progress to date on objectives.

At a meeting coordinator, student-trainee, and employer review the accomplishment and progress on the objectives to date. Together they identify weak areas and missing objectives. If necessary, they modify learning objectives, adding new objectives or replacing inappropriate ones. The coordinator determines student-trainee's mid-term grade.

Final Evaluation

Coordinator, student-trainee, and employer go through same process as at mid-term.

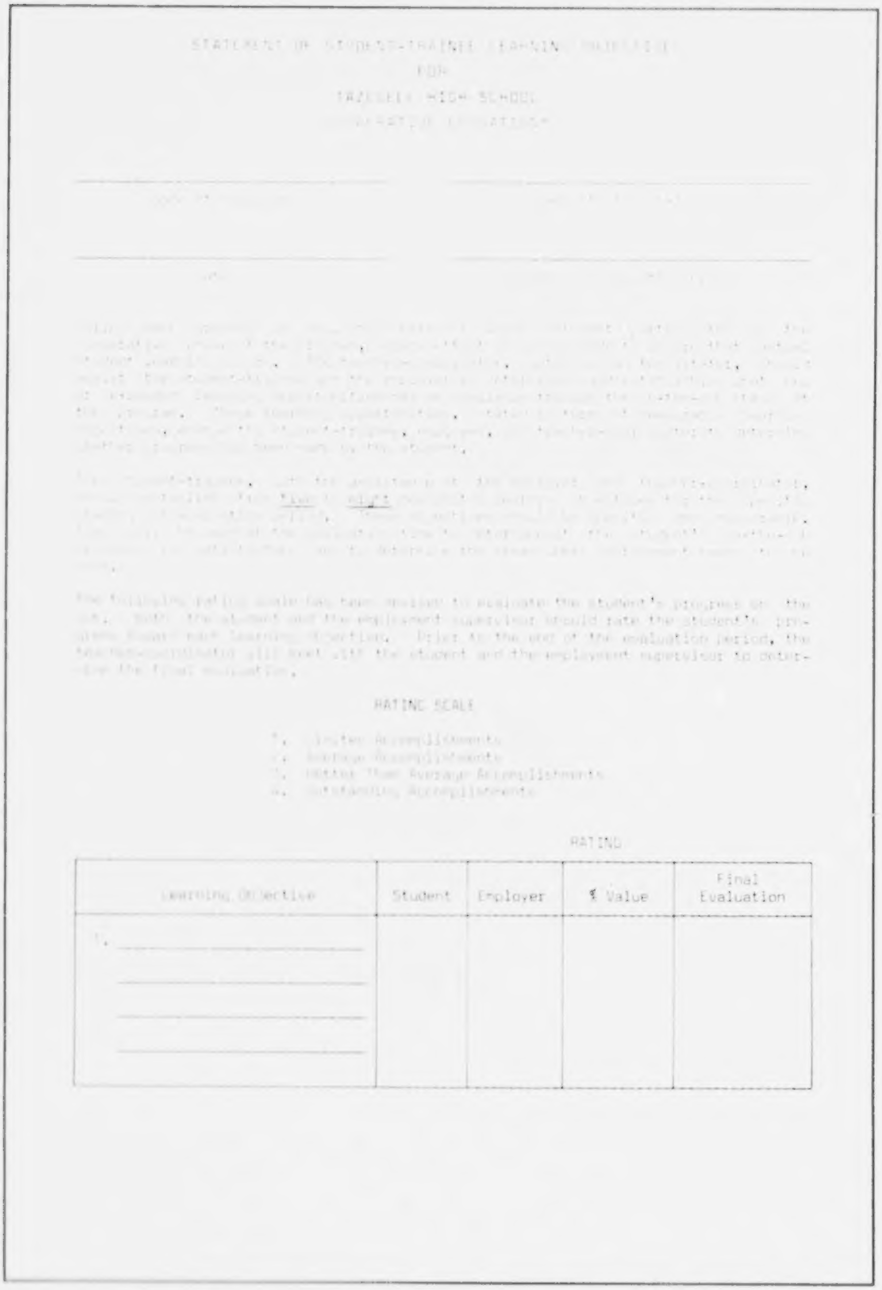
Coordinator, student-trainee, and employer discuss possible learning objectives for the next evaluation period.

SSLO advantages.—The SSLO approach to the development of cooperative occupational education training plans provides advantages to all parties involved in the cooperative education phase of the program—the student, the employer, and the school. Potential advantages of the SSLO system include:

1. Students have a greater appreciation for the learnings provided through their jobs, thus greater interest in and motivation on their jobs.
2. Students appreciate the clearer direction that results from the objective-setting process.
3. The procedure enhances communication and understanding between employers and student-trainees. Reality testing occurs.
4. Employers appreciate the business-like and objective approach followed by the educational institution.
5. Employers gain an understanding of a new evaluation technique, which can be incorporated into their entire operation.
6. The procedure allows the school and the coordinator to build a bank of learning objectives (learning opportunities), which may be used by future student-trainees in similar occupational situations.
7. The procedure allows for the assignment of a more objective grade, a grade based on performance objectives rather than on personality characteristics.

DESIGNATING AND TRAINING TRAINING SPONSORS

If the job is to be what it should be—an educational laboratory—then it is reasonable that one person in each firm be designated as the training sponsor. This person is responsible for supervising the learning experiences that,



STATEMENT OF STUDENT-TRAINEE LEARNING OBJECTIVES
FOR
TAZEWELL HIGH SCHOOL
COOPERATIVE EDUCATION*

[illegible]

[illegible]

The following rating scale has been devised to evaluate the student's progress on the job. Both the student and the employment supervisor should rate the student's progress toward each learning objective. Prior to the end of the evaluation period, the teacher-coordinator will meet with the student and the employment supervisor to determine the final evaluation.

RATING SCALE

1. Limited Accomplishments
2. Average Accomplishments
3. Better Than Average Accomplishments
4. Outstanding Accomplishments

	RATING			
Learning Objective	Student	Employer	% Value	Final Evaluation
1. ____________				

FIG. 11-1 (Courtesy Dr. William A. Stull, Utah State University, Logan)

STATEMENT OF STUDENT-TRAINEE LEARNING OBJECTIVES (Continued)

	RATING			
Learning Objective	Student	Employer	% Value	Final Evaluation
2. ____________ ____________ ____________				
3. ____________ ____________ ____________				
4. ____________ ____________ ____________				
5. ____________ ____________ ____________				
6. ____________ ____________ ____________				
7. ____________ ____________ ____________				
8. ____________ ____________ ____________				

Signature of Student ______________________________

Signature of Faculty Advisor ______________________________

Signature of Employer ______________________________

FIG. 11-1 (Continued)

while being worthwhile enough to be the basis for the granting of credit by the school, should relate to the student's needs.

In a sense, training sponsors are the counterpart of teacher-coordinators. They must be job supervisors for the employers, overseeing the trainees' performance and insuring that they are productive employees. At the same time, their role is quite different—they must be ***counselors*** to students who may be much younger than they are, ***instructors*** who show and tell how an operation is to be carried out, ***planners*** of experiences that should be varied and related to the students' progress, and ***evaluators*** not only of job productivity but also of progress toward defined job goals.

TABLE 11-1

Responsibilities of Training Sponsor and Coordinator

Training Sponsor	Coordinator
1. Always treat the trainee with respect—not as a "dummy" or as a "kid."	1. Help the sponsor develop an awareness of what it is like to be economically disadvantaged, a member of a minority group, young, and inexperienced.
2. Recognize the shortcomings of the trainee, but be positive in terms of possible solutions.	2. Don't *talk down* to the sponsor; *talk* with the sponsor so that he/she will be able to help the trainee. Avoid using "school" or "teacher" language.
3. Introduce the trainee as an employee, and then help the trainee develop good working relationships with other employees.	3. Encourage the sponsor to praise the trainee, but only for good effort or work performed well.
4. Expect the trainee to abide by the same rules as everyone else. Require the trainee to perform the same kinds of tasks as other employees.	4. Expect the trainee to put forth effort and to perform well. Back up the sponsor.
5. Contact the coordinator immediately if a problem is forthcoming, or if a problem (previously unforseeable) is present.	5. *Always* be available when the training sponsor needs your help. Go today . . . the trainee's problem exists now . . . it won't wait.

Training sponsors must have the time to devote to the role so that they do not neglect their training duties in favor of other demands. They must be in proximity to the students' work areas to supervise their activities. They must be viewed by their employers as being trustworthy and equal to a unique supervisory task. Above all, they must be individuals who are responsive to young people and who are not in any way threatened by their youth. The sponsors may be rank-and-file employees, or they may be supervisors. As preceding criteria demonstrate, it is the person, not the title or the rank, who counts. If there are several trainees in one firm, there should be several training sponsors, with a senior officer, such as the personnel director, designated as the contact person for the firm.[9] This person can also give direction to the several training sponsors.

The coordinator plays a very important part in orienting the training supervisors (job sponsors) at the participating training stations. The training sponsors will need to know what their responsibilities are as the training supervisors of the student-trainees, and they will need to understand the importance of the related class.

An initial conference with both the employer and the training sponsor (if they are not one and the same) should give the coordinator an opportunity to talk over the problems and possibilities involved in having a trainee in a cooperative work station with that particular business. It may seem like an easy task to list the responsibilities of the training sponsor and the employer, but the real difficulty lies in how to "reach" the sponsor to show what these responsibilities really are. The coordinator must be extremely tactful but helpful in dealing with employers and training supervisors in business and industry.

MAINTAINING LEGAL AND ETHICAL EMPLOYMENT

Educators who direct students in work situations must insure legal and ethical employment situations. Teacher-coordinators must know the intent as well as the fine points of the law, for not only are they the representatives of the students, who are usually minors, but they are also the link between the school and the community. They must be conversant and articulate in explaining to all parties the legal language in terms the parties understand. Of primary concern are those laws dealing with work permits, hazardous occupations, working hours and other employment standards, fair employment practices, and insurance compensation such as workers' compensation.

In addition to assuring the students and their parents, the school, and the employers that students are legally employed, coordinators have an equally important responsibility. Because the school controls the student's work assignments, coordinators must insure ethical employment. They cannot allow employment that, although technically legal, would violate what is considered "ethical." This is an important factor, particularly since the mores of students and their parents may conflict with those of the school administration, or even those of their coordinators. Coordinators must advise, caution, and counsel each student to make a decision that everyone can live with and when that decision has been made, to have the final arrangements put in writing.

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[9] Some firms that employ several student-learners in one location or in several branches use a centralized training technique. A training officer makes up a weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly plan of on-the-job experiences (a departmental rotation schedule), as well as a schedule of group lectures, observations, and other presentations. This technique appears to have considerable merit in a very large organization or in one, such as a hospital, where many specialists are available to teach major concepts or where the student because of inexperience or age cannot actually participate in certain activities. This technique also is recommended for post-secondary programs to give future managers and specialists an over-all view of the firm's operations and to help them and the firm decide their career route within the firm.

Guidelines for legal employment.—Coordinators are held accountable for assuring legal employment. In one sense, they enforce the law by complying with regulations, even in cases where they do not agree with them. In another sense, however, they only guide employers by advising them of the law and circumstances in which they perceive the employers might be judged guilty of a violation. Coordinators do employers a great service by calling their attention to such conditions. Coordinators recognize that the failure of anyone—school, student, or employer—to comply with the law results in damage to the image of the plan. If a student-learner's health or safety is endangered, the coordinator is subject to criticism and in some cases to legal action. If a situation is serious, the coordinator should seriously consider terminating a placement or avoiding a placement, along with giving an explanation to the firm about these actions. Legal employment is discussed in detail in Chapter 16.

Orienting Trainees to Learning Opportunities at Job Laboratories

Students in a cooperative plan of instruction are in what is for most of them a very new learning environment and one very different from what they have usually experienced. They are asked to be at one time students in the usual sense of attending classes and at another time individuals who must adjust to a role in the world of work and use it as a learning experience. These two roles cannot be played without professional assistance from their teacher-coordinators, whom they see every day. The coordinators are counselors, friends, and contacts between school and job. It is the coordinators who help students adjust to their role as individuals outside the school. For mature adults, this adjustment to the scheduling of time and the mixing of roles would be most difficult; for young persons, it is even more complex and can usually be accomplished only if the coordinators have the time to make the process meaningful to all involved.

ACQUAINTING STUDENT-LEARNERS WITH THE VALUES OF THE TRAINING PLAN

Those who enroll in the cooperative occupational education plan should understand that:

1. They must have enough time available for part-time employment and at the same time complete other school requirements.
2. Employers will be expecting interested, motivated individuals who are willing to learn to produce well on the job.
3. Their learning activities must be carefully planned so as to contribute to their preparation for their chosen careers.
4. Their coordinators will evaluate them during visits to their training stations. They will also help them to overcome any problems in the workplace.
5. Their coordinators will thoroughly explain local administration rules on grades, credits, and student responsibilities.

The orientation process should also teach student-learners how to learn, since the integrated school-job laboratory situation is novel to them. They can be given sample project assignments that show how training station experiences relate to the class in school. They should learn through role-playing how to ask questions of training sponsors and how to explain the training role to co-workers. Other experiences can be those of looking over a step-by-step training plan for career objectives, filling out a sample weekly report, and making an observation of an actual work situation and writing up the report.

FORMALIZING THE STUDENT ORIENTATION PROCESS

In some occupational curricula the cooperative plan is a capstone course or experience. In such cases the orientation of student-learners to the cooperative experience comes in the prerequisite course, preferably through an intensive unit prior to final placement. When this prerequisite instruction is not feasible or when the orientation is not carried out in such courses, some schools use what amounts to a short course or workshop. This is usually carried out during after-school hours, during the summer, or in a daytime series just prior to school opening in the fall.

The objectives of this orientation short course or workshop are:

1. To acquaint students with the purposes, rules, and policies of the cooperative plan.
2. To introduce students to their responsibilities in such a plan.
3. To provide pre-employment training for students ***at the time it is needed***.
4. To assist students in developing an awareness of the initial skills, knowledges, and attitudes necessary to meet their immediate employment needs.

5. To help students to understand the importance of further general and occupational education.
6. To encourage students to become aware of occupational opportunities in their chosen areas and to utilize a "career objective" approach to their vocations.

The content of such a short course (five to six meetings, to total 10 to 12 hours) is best determined locally, based upon the most effective ways to arrive at the objectives just shown. The course may be classified as an adult education offering and planned for any of the cooperative occupational areas, or it may be available to all prospective cooperative education students. Preferably the instruction should be handled by the teacher-coordinator or by a team of the coordinators of the cooperative education plans, if more than one type exists in the community. Also, former students, selected training sponsors, and related-subject instructors can be used as resource persons.

Coordination Practices in a New Plan

Some training stations can provide, and some student-learners need, only two or three types of experience. Other training stations can provide, and some student-learners, because they are high achievers and because they are seeking top-level career objectives, will need, as many as six or more areas of experience on the job during the school year. Before accepting a particular training station, the coordinator should be satisfied with the possibility of obtaining the variety of experiences consistent with the needs of the student. In the case of a store or an office, a variety of experience might very well be obtained in a single department or section. In the case of an industrial shop or a laboratory, the student-learner should receive a series of challenging learning experiences and not be kept on minor repetitive operations for excessive periods of time. Accepting poor training stations or "just jobs" for expediency will usually lead to difficulties early in the school year as the result of dissatisfied employers or enrollees and will jeopardize the reputation of the plan in the school and in the community.

When a teacher-coordinator for business occupations has evidence that a business has potential as a training station, he/she should draw up a training agreement form similar to Figure 11-2. Four copies are needed for each student-learner placement (one copy each for the student, parent, training station sponsor, and coordinator). Attached to each copy of the training agreement may be a copy of a step-by-step training plan. The step-by-step plan for a new training station may have to be developed in periodic steps during the

TRAINING AGREEMENT

Name of Student-Learner ______________________________ Age ______

School ____

Business Establishment ____________________ Address ____________

Job Sponsor (supervises student-learner) ______________________

Dates of Training Period ______________________________

Student's Career Objective ______________________________

Basic skills, attitudes, and knowledges needed in this occupation:

____

____

____

Main areas of related instruction in the classroom during the school year:

____

____

____

The student-learner will consider the job experiences as contributing to career objectives and will perform training station responsibilities and classroom responsibilities thoroughly.

The employer will recognize that a training plan is being followed and that close supervision of the student-learner will be needed. The employer (1) will provide work experiences listed in this training plan, (2) will provide part-time employment of ____ hours a week on the average, (3) will provide wages to the student-learner at the start of $ ________ per ________, and (4) will consult with the coordinator on any major problems that arise concerning the performance of the student-learner.

The coordinator (1) will provide instruction directly related to the student's job activities and career objective, (2) will suggest ways of supervising the student-learner, and (3) will assist the employer with training problems pertaining to the job.

Additional comments: ______________________________

____

____

Student ____________________ Parent ____________________

Employer ____________________ Coordinator ____________________

Phone ____________________

FIG. 11-2

school year and on more than one coordination visit. Once a plan is established for a particular training station, yearly review and adjustment of the plan for other student-learners are usually satisfactory.

In preparing complete training plans, coordinators should identify the ***learning outcomes*** for the career objective of each of the student-learners. For example, the learning outcomes during the school year for Student-learner X, with a career objective of "Administrative Assistant," might be identified as the broad areas of public relations, telephone technique, mail handling, filing, record keeping, typing, word processor operation, and machine transcription. The learning outcomes for the school year for Student-learner Y, with a career objective of "Men's Wear Buyer," might be identified as the broad areas of store housekeeping, stock keeping, buying, selling and servicing, displaying, clerical activities, maintenance of inventory control, and fitting. The learning outcomes for the school year for Student-learner Z, with a career objective of "Sheet-Metal Worker," might be identified as the broad areas of fabricating, assembling, altering, repairing, and installing sheet-metal articles and equipment. The first case is business occupations placement, the second case, a marketing education placement, and the third case, an industrial occupations placement. Similar lists of learning outcomes can be determined for health occupations, agricultural, and home economics occupations.

Making Coordination Visits Productive

Anyone who has worked with the cooperative plan knows that administrators have many questions about the time spent on the coordination function. They realize that it is often a one-to-one situation and involves traveling and waiting, and they are inclined to contrast this with the time the teacher could spend with a group of 30 students. Administrators are also faced with the imperative need to justify the uses of funds in their budgets; thus, in attempting to conserve resources, they are inclined to use student credit hours or some other ratio of teacher-student as a guideline. This appreciation of the administrators' position makes it necessary for coordinators not only to demonstrate why coordination visits are essential to quality education but also to make them as productive as possible. Effective teacher-coordinators should use as a rule of thumb the commitment of at least one-half hour per week per trainee for coordination time. This would involve at least one visitation per month on the average, but there cannot be a prescribed formula handed out, as each trainee, employer, and occupation will differ in demands. Insecure trainees may require weekly visits until they are more secure.

Visits to the training station will include:

1. *The employer and/or supervisor visitation (evaluation)*

The employer–supervisor–coordinator conference is the most effective means of evaluating the trainee's work experience. Such evaluations will help coordinators:

a. Determine adherence of the training station to the training plan for each trainee.
b. Make adjustments to the training plan as they are needed.
c. Evaluate each trainee's progress on the job.
d. Insure that proper training methods are being used.

2. *Observation of trainees*

The training station visits permit coordinators to observe trainees on the job and can help coordinators:

a. Determine the appropriateness of the trainee's appearance on the job.
b. Ascertain how other employees seem to react to the trainees.
c. See how the trainees meet and serve the public.
d. Show the trainees that their coordinators are interested in their occupational development.

TABLE 11-2

Problems That Affect Trainee's on-the-Job Experiences

Attitude problems
  1. Feeling that employers owe them a job
  2. No feeling of responsibility or obligation to employers for a good job

Inability to follow directions

Misuse of coffee breaks

Alcoholism or drugs

Misunderstanding over employment agreement
  1. Wages paid
  2. Hours worked
  3. Shift changes
  4. Fringe benefits

Slow learner

Problems with the family

Inability to take orders from superiors

Lack of interest in the occupation for which they have been trained

Inability to accept criticism from employer/supervisor

Attendance and punctuality
  1. Frequently absent
  2. Late to work

Lack of self-confidence often results in trainees quitting because they:
  1. Are not sure they are doing a good job
  2. Feel they are not liked by other workers
  3. Feel their employers are prejudiced

Low production
  1. Producing *fewer* units than than regular employees
  2. Producing *fewer error-free units* than other employees

e. Observe any apparent difficulties that have not been previously brought to their coordinators' attention (see Table 11-2).

3. *Promotional activities for the plan*

In order to develop new training stations and to assist employers in upgrading existing positions, coordinators will:

a. Make training station personnel continuously aware of training activities and objectives.
b. Keep abreast of current trends in the world of work.
c. Secure publications or other current materials that can be used as source materials in the instructional phase of the training.
d. Solicit participation of employers in training and promotional activities.
e. Distribute and explain brochures that are locally designed or developed by the state staff.

PRE-ARRANGING COORDINATION VISITS

To make coordination time productive, teacher-coordinators should carefully plan their calendar of events, make specific appointments with their various publics for specific reasons, and keep a current log of their activities in a pocket notebook. Local state systems and state departments of vocational education will ask for coordination reports (see Figure 11-3). It is most helpful if pocket notebook notations of coordination activities can be referred to in these reports. Years ago Crum suggested another type of notebook that coordinators might carry along on visits as a source for information on items such as school policies, labor regulations, employer responsibilities, student selection procedures, evaluation criteria, school forms, student success stories, and testimonials.[7]

To be most productive, coordination activities should directly or indirectly benefit student-learners.

WHAT TO DO DURING A VISITATION

The specific reasons for visiting a training station will vary, depending on the student-learner, the type of training station, the time of the school year,

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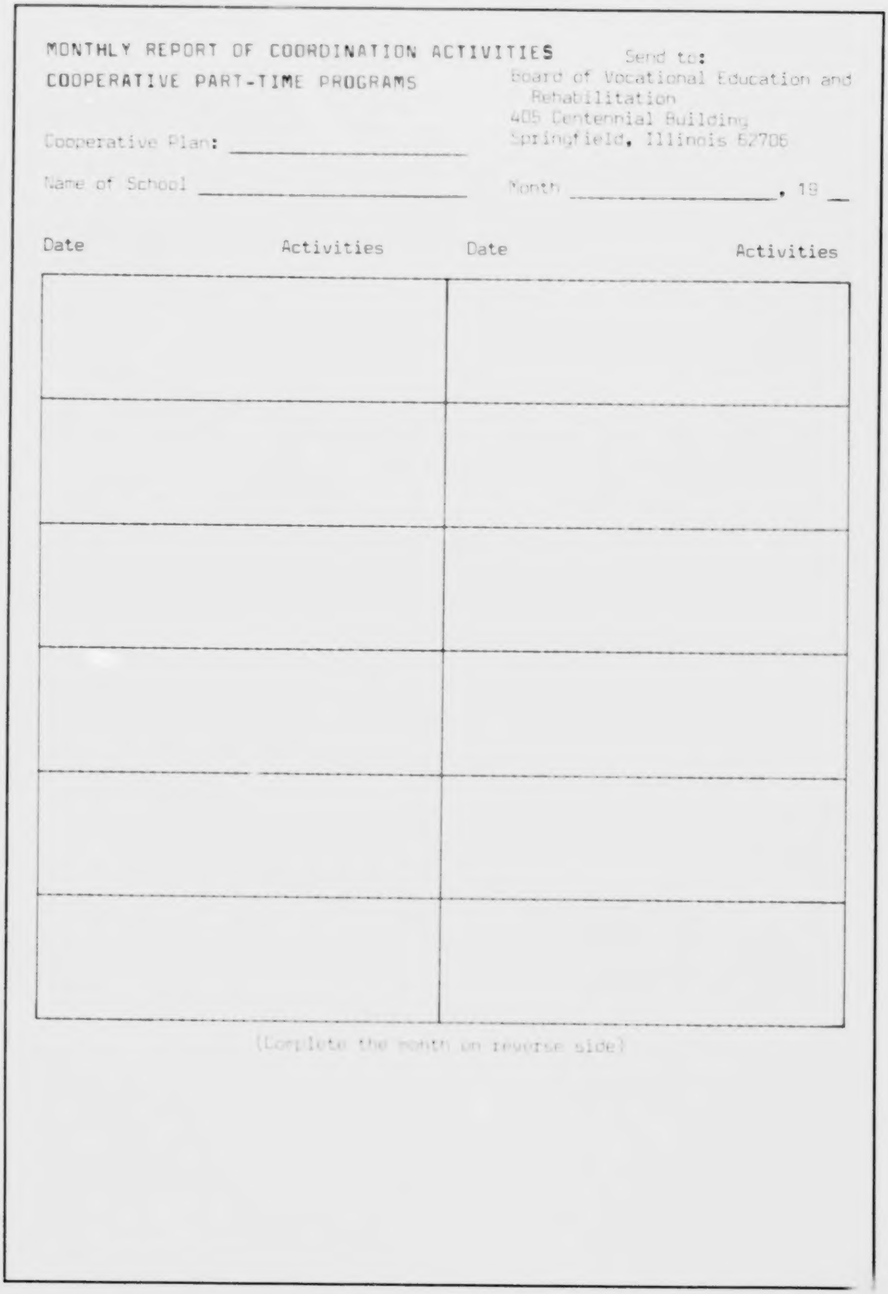
[7] Dwight R. Crum, "Coordinator's Notebook," *Business Education Forum*, Vol. 12, December 1958, p. 27.



MONTHLY REPORT OF COORDINATION ACTIVITIES
COOPERATIVE PART-TIME PROGRAMS

Send to:
Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation
405 Centennial Building
Springfield, Illinois 62706

Cooperative Plan: ____________________

Name of School ____________________

Month ____________________, 19 __

Date Activities	Date Activities

(Complete the month on reverse side)

FIG. 11-3

Date	Activities	Date	Activities

Comments:

Signed by ________________________
Coordinator

Signed by ________________________
Superintendent, Principal, or Director of Vocational Education

FIG. 11-3 (Continued)

and the types of instruction being carried out in the classroom and on the job at the time. Coordinators should visit each training station at least once a month, although deviations will be necessary. At the beginning of their experience on the job, some student-learners may have to be visited briefly each week. Some student-learners will need close attention because making certain adjustments is difficult for them. Others will adjust quite well; a visit every three or four weeks will be sufficient for them.

A few ***do's*** and ***don'ts*** of coordination are listed in Table 11-3, which follows.

TABLE 11-3

***Do's* and *Don'ts* of Coordination**

1. *Do* observe the trainees on the job.	1. *Don't*, as a rule, correct the trainees at the time of visitation without consulting with their sponsors.
2. *Do* consult with the job sponsors frequently about the progress of the trainees and about suggestions regarding how to implement the training plan.	2. *Don't* use an extended block of the job sponsor's time without a prior appointment.
3. *Do* consult with top management of the training directors occasionally regarding the cooperative education plan.	3. *Don't* just drop by for a chat with job sponsors. Have a reason for asking to see them.
4. *Do* be alert for specific instructional materials to have the trainees bring into the classroom.	4. *Don't* expect many of the sponors to be able to teach on the job or to evaluate the trainees' work without some suggestions and guidance from you.
5. *Do* involve job sponsors in evaluating student projects.	5. *Don't* drop in on employers without first calling.
6. *Do* thank employers for their time.	6. *Don't* ask employers to do any more paperwork than is necessary.
7. *Do* meet where employers want to meet, regardless of your attire.	7. *Don't* talk to the trainees' supervisors about the trainees in front of them.
8. *Do* talk with both the supervisors and the trainees during every visit so that neither one feels left out or insecure about what might have been said to the other.	8. *Don't* forget to reassure the trainees before leaving them, if private consultation is necessary with their employers or their supervisors.
9. *Do* act with assurance that this is a cooperative arrangement mutually beneficial to all, not a "favor" to the school.	9. *Don't* comment on the working conditions unless a change that affects the trainees has been evidenced since the training agreement.

Questions and Activities

1. Explain the concept of job development, and describe the benefits when it is effectively carried out.
2. Why have educators generally been reluctant to engage in aggressive job development? What factors or forces may be emerging now that will compel institutions to overcome this reluctance?

3. Prepare a list of job-development techniques similar to that shown in this chapter for a specific community and cooperative plan. Demonstrate in your list certain techniques that are unique to the community, the age of the plan's use, the occupation being served, and other factors such as the level of the institution and the type of plan.

4. Select a job you know well. Develop a statement of learning outcomes for a student-learner in that occupation.

5. Prepare a training agreement for use with training stations in a given locality.

6. Discuss the relative merits, or advantages and disadvantages, of three ways of formulating a step-by-step training plan. They are:

   a. Use the list of skills, attitudes, and information needed for a successful career in the student-learner's chosen occupation, prepared by the coordinator, the employer, and the student-learner cooperatively.

   b. Use a printed training plan for each occupation, and check off the activities in the plan that are appropriate for a given student-learner.

   c. Develop a training station profile. Then, each grade period set down in behavioral terms certain student-learner objectives to be accomplished and evaluated.

7. Prepare a paper listing the advantages and disadvantages of each of the following persons as a job sponsor: manager, department head or supervisor, experienced employee.

8. Discuss the work schedules that would be appropriate and necessary for a specific occupational plan in a particular community. If these were not generally during the released school hours, how would you justify this to your administration? What would the trainees do during their released time?

9. To help solve the problem of trainee orientation: (a) prepare a copy for a brochure or handout for the students, (b) devise a topical outline for an orientation workshop, (c) prepare an outline of a teaching unit for the related class.

10. Outline a role-playing situation for three coordination visits, each of which has a different purpose.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

12

Correlating Instruction Between School and Job Laboratories

A modern, well-equipped laboratory simulating the work environment becomes an important element in related instruction for cooperative occupational education plans.

KEY CONCEPT: *Individual student needs and on-the-job requirements determine related classroom instruction.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Explain how and why related classroom instruction is correlated with the on-the-job experiences and career objectives of student-learners.
- Involve students in developing training plans.
- Involve job supervisors in developing the training plan.
- Develop the forms necessary for adequate training station evaluation.
- Develop and provide individualized instruction.
- Conduct training station visits.

KEY TERMS

correlation
farm-out system
feedback
sponsor development
weekly training station report

The essence of the cooperative plan of instruction is the sharing of the teaching-learning responsibility between the professionally trained individual in the school laboratory and the occupationally proficient individuals in the work laboratory. But to be shared does not mean that each does a portion of the educational job in isolation from the other. Rather, this sharing of responsibility means a mutual understanding of goals and a correlation of efforts. In a sense this correlation is analogous to the team effort in any sport or activity in which each party relates closely to the other and adapts to the common agreed upon goals.

If school and employer each agreed to do an assigned task in isolation from the other and if each could do this, there would be no need for a coordinator other than for placement and evaluation. But the task is not so simple, for in the cooperative plan there is an interaction between two parties and between the students and the two training sponsors. It is this interaction of the parties that makes the correlation activity so vital to the functioning of the cooperative plan of instruction.

Correlation must be of such priority that coordinators demonstrate it at every opportunity. They begin when they encourage their students to become involved in the planning and management of the learning situation.

Involving Students in the Training Plan

The backbone of correlation is a plan of instruction supported by consistent and meaningful follow-up as the coordinator stays on top of the situation. The training plan is prepared, as shown in Chapter 11, primarily by the teacher-coordinator and the training sponsor. However, the students must become very involved with their individual plans. They must review and suggest changes in them. Each student should use his/her particular plan as a guide to gaining experiences by taking advantage of opportunities. Trainees can profit from instruction in school and on the job to the extent that they are willing to be involved, to be responsible for their own learning, and to be active participants in the planning and management of their learning process. Trainees, after many years of directive teaching, may find this freedom disconcerting and difficult to accept and manage. But, they should be persuaded that managing their own learning will be very important during their many years of future employment.

As part of their **related class** instruction, trainees should be asked to do at least four activities that will assist in correlating learnings. These are:

1. List at the beginning of their work experience their career objectives,

as well as some of the areas in which they wish to obtain experiences and training during the school year.

2. Prepare a weekly **training station report** that will indicate to them and to the coordinator the areas in which they are gaining instruction on the job (see Figure 12-1).
3. Summarize periodically, preferably once each grade period (whether that be six weeks or nine weeks), the learning outcomes on their job; review their training plan progress.
4. Evaluate at the end of the school year their training by setting up a profile of what has occurred at their training station during the school year. They should indicate the title of their present job, their career objectives at the end of the school year, the experience and training they have received, and their future plans for meeting their career objectives.

While student-learners must get involved in managing their learning, they vary in maturity and in their ability to plan and work individually. The less able students, especially those who have difficulty with cognitive learning, will need much assistance in developing their self-confidence and their ability to make decisions. On the other hand, post-secondary students should have developed considerable self-discipline in structuring their own learning.

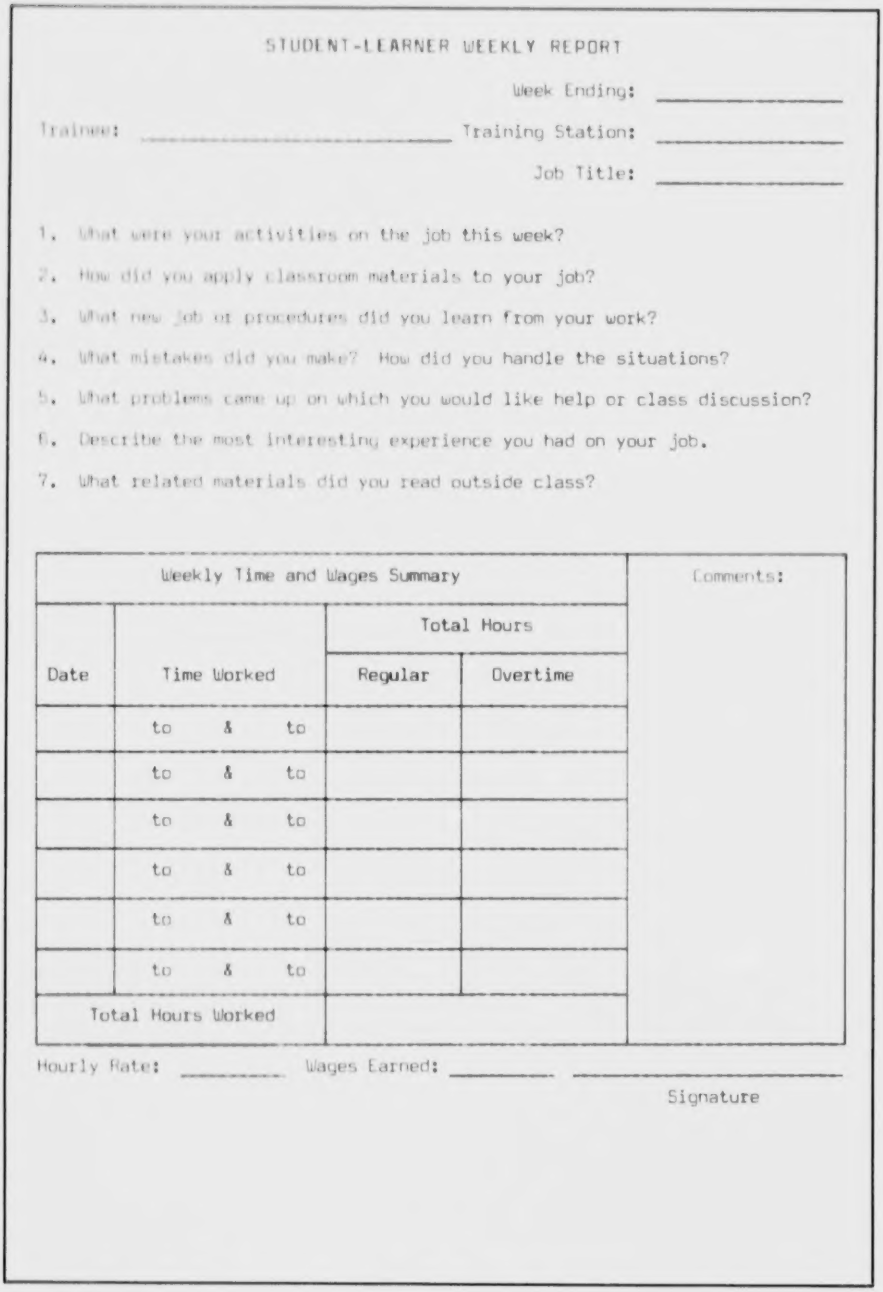
Making Classroom Instruction Realistic

Often trainees find it difficult to see the relationship between those skills learned within the classroom and those learned on the job (see Figure 12-2). The progress of trainees depends on their ease in seeing this relationship. This is true not only of related skills instruction but also of basic education. It may be easier for the trainee who is planning to be a machinist to see the need for learning how to operate a drill press than for learning to read.

This trainee needs to be shown examples of how instruction in school and on the job interrelate. The student-learner trainee will gain additional ideas about the applicability of the instruction by engaging in case problem discussions and by undertaking individual projects.

USING JOB PROBLEMS TO MAKE INSTRUCTION REALISTIC

Most students expect their classroom instructions to be relevant. This is especially true of cooperative student-learners. They will expect certain skills and ideas learned in the classroom to be operational immediately on the jobs



STUDENT-LEARNER WEEKLY REPORT

Week Ending: ____________

Trainee: ____________________ Training Station: ____________

Job Title: ____________

1. What were your activities on the job this week?
2. How did you apply classroom materials to your job?
3. What new job or procedures did you learn from your work?
4. What mistakes did you make? How did you handle the situations?
5. What problems came up on which you would like help or class discussion?
6. Describe the most interesting experience you had on your job.
7. What related materials did you read outside class?

Weekly Time and Wages Summary				Comments:
		Total Hours		
Date	Time Worked	Regular	Overtime	
	to & to			
	to & to			
	to & to			
	to & to			
	to & to			
	to & to			
Total Hours Worked				

Hourly Rate: ________ Wages Earned: ________ ____________________

Signature

FIG. 12-1

EXAMPLES OF HOW INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOL AND ON THE JOB INTERRELATE

Institutional Training	Employer
1. Trainees who are employed on co-op in different business firms can "share" experiences on how similar tasks are performed in different situations.	1. The employer/supervisor can demonstrate to a trainee how tasks are to be performed in the business in an actual situation.
2. Instructors can devote instructional time to the general study of the interrelationships of jobs.	2. A trainee can see the division of work in one business if the job orientation includes details on the operation of the company. Oftentimes, however, little time is available for such explanations.
3. Instructors may conduct "how-to-do" sessions for the trainees, which feature "extra" task practice in order to perfect performance in certain tasks.	3. In the actual job experience a trainee will perform the task only when it is needed and only the number of times needed by the employer for production purposes.
4. Instructors are specialists in teaching the basics of a broad occupational area.	4. The employer / supervisor is the teacher; the trainee will learn the "one" way to do a task, according to the supervisor.
5. Following certain task exercises with trainees, instructors may make cooperative decisions based on the outcome of their critiques of the trainees.	5. The supervisor will be evaluating a "finished product." Therefore, any criticism may relate to work that may have to be redone if there are any errors. (Extra task practice would help trainee.)
6. Trainees may learn basic operational techniques for a variety of equipment necessary in their occupations.	6. A trainee will learn to operate the equipment of a specific employer and to apply principles to specific job tasks.
7. Instructors may devote instructional time to task analysis and in-depth study of step-by-step procedures employed in a job situation.	7. After an initial explanation of how to do a task, a trainee may have to perform the task under the coaching of an experienced worker or supervisor.
8. The related instruction period permits the trainees to pull together and discuss ideas from many sources -- other trainees, coordinator, counselor, instructor, and many businesses.	8. The employer usually limits instruction to the tasks or jobs the trainees will be performing during their experience.
9. The related instruction experience exposes the trainees to qualities needed for various job experiences that other trainees are having (punctuality, special dress, attendance, etc.)	9. The on-the-job cooperative experience acquaints trainees with those qualities and traits (punctuality, attendance, grooming) mainly applicable to specific job situations.
10. Instructors can develop materials (related and/or basic) to meet the needs of specific businesses and then instruct to meet those specific needs (at an employer's request).	10. The supervisor uses only those materials that are needed for a specific task or job to be done for the company.

FIG. 12-2

to which they go. A situation that arises at the job training station or a problem that a student-learner brings to class stimulates interest and suggests to the teacher-coordinator certain areas to be covered in related instruction. Some problems or certain instructional units may require the assistance of another staff member.

A training station problem.—The wise teacher-coordinator carefully studies the weekly training station reports prepared by the students. Such study often brings to light topics for related instruction or a need for individual instruction or counsel. For example, if the teacher-coordinator discovers from reading the weekly reports that several students are not benefiting from the job supervision available to them, class time can be taken to illustrate how an employee can make the best use of constructive suggestions from the supervisor. If a weekly report indicates a problem unique to one student, this matter can be handled through a personal student-teacher conference.

An occupational problem voiced by a student-learner.—On occasion, a student-learner may say in class, "But that's not the way we do it down at my training station," or "I certainly had a time of it yesterday when three persons were telling me things to do—all at the same time!" This is a clue to an immediate problem, and without specific names of business personnel being mentioned, classroom time can be spent wisely in the discussion of possible solutions to the problem for the benefit of all the students.

The teacher-coordinator needs to encourage students to share both their negative and their positive experiences on the job. Because some students believe they may be "tattling" and others may have been conditioned in earlier school years not to discuss their problems, the teacher-coordinator must create an environment in which students feel free to discuss their experiences. One technique used to seek out problems and to aid students in solving problems is to teach them a simple four-step analysis.

1. ***Get the facts.*** Which are the real ones? Which are hidden ones? Which are apparent but not relevant?
2. ***Consider possible alternatives.*** What courses of action could be taken? Which facts support each? What results would occur?
3. ***Take action.*** Which is the best choice? What others are acceptable? Why? How will this action be initiated?
4. ***Check results.*** What happened and to whom? Would another solution have been better? Was the solution right but the method of acting on it wrong?

First students can work on teacher-created problems and then write out their own cases. Students should describe the situation and then apply the four-step analysis, either as a group through teacher-led discussion, through small groups with student leaders, or individually in writing. Occasionally, asking students to write solutions helps them have a quiet time to ponder and to consider, without having to feel embarrassed if other students jeer at their spoken thoughts.

PROVIDING EXAMPLES OF CORRELATED GENERAL LEARNING PROJECTS IN THE RELATED CLASS

The immediacy of the job gives rise to many projects for the related class instruction that will demonstrate to trainees the desired relevance to the on-the-job situation. The following examples are illustrative of the areas instructors may consider presenting to their students. It should be noted that most are in the area of general occupational learning, since skill-learning assignments will be specific to the particular job title.

1. How many times each day do you find you must read on your job? (Be sure to count signs, directions, manuals . . . everything you must read!)
2. What kind of arithmetic must you do on your job? Give examples. (*Note:* Be sure to look at your paycheck!)
3. Is there a union where you work? If so, write a short report on what the union does, how many members it has, and what occupational area(s) it covers.
4. Every job has a special language. Keep a list of words (with their definitions) that are used in your field of work.
5. You are the boss. What kind of people would you hire? What kinds of activities would these employees have to do? Ask your boss to look over your list to determine if your requirements are practical.
6. Will you be able to support yourself or a family on the money you will make in your first permanent job? Will you be able to support your family on the money you will make at top pay? Figure two budgets based on: (1) entry-level pay and (2) top pay scales.
7. What safety and health hazards are connected with your job? What can you do to avoid them?
8. How much does it cost your employer for your coffee breaks? (Figure out the cost for one day, one week, one month, and one year.)
9. What is the arrangement of work space in your working area? How are tools arranged? How are records kept, and where are they kept?

What kinds of supplies are kept in the work area? Draw a diagram of the work area, showing where all work benches, equipment, walking areas, etc., are located.

10. What is the correct way of answering the telephone at your work station (or greeting visitors who enter the area)?
11. If an employee wanted to "check out" a certain record from your working area and go into another, what procedure would he/she have to follow? Is there a "check-out" system?
12. Are certain kinds of handbooks or reference magazines important in your work assignment? If so, what are they? Why are they considered important? What information do they provide?
13. Is there a special uniform that is required in your working area? If so, prepare a short report describing the uniform and why it is designed as it is.
14. Do you have your own desk or work area? How could you arrange the area so that you could get your work done better, faster, and more efficiently?

DEVELOPING APPRECIATION FOR THE DIGNITY AND VALUE OF WORK

A most important function of related class instruction is to help students who are out in the world of work appreciate the values of work and the satisfaction that can result from doing any task well. Students can use this opportunity to recognize that through work they can make a contribution in their own unique way; furthermore, they can relate input to the culture and the welfare of society, to the community, and to the employing agency.

The teacher-coordinator and the job sponsor have frequent opportunities to assist trainees in appreciating the dignity of work. The optimum development of our society depends upon individuals in all walks of life acquiring an appreciation for the concept of work—a feeling that all legitimate work is dignified and respectable. Student-learners have many opportunities to find out that different kinds of work require varying levels of ability and different aptitudes. Every kind of work at every level requires someone who has mastered the work, if it is to be done most effectively.

USING A TRAINING GUIDE NOTEBOOK OR PROJECT MANUAL

The theory of the classroom and the practice of the firm can be welded together if the teacher-coordinator uses a special project manual or some similar form of notebook or workbook to aid students in translating their experiences. This supplementary book asks the students to apply theory to the job, it encourages them to analyze job operations, and it provides individual projects that relate to them, their training stations, and their career goals. Student-learners may gain technical information, which the training station through its limitations may not be able to provide. This manual also has the advantage of demonstrating to the job supervisor what each student needs, and it involves the sponsor in actual teaching to help the trainees with their projects. Some coordinators design, write, and produce their own project manuals. Some project manuals are produced by state departments, while others are available through commercial sources.

The Related Class Teacher (The Farm-Out System) and Correlation Problems

If the coordinator also has the responsibility for teaching the trainees, problems involved in the correlation of instruction are greatly minimized. The teacher-coordinator is teaching the same trainee visited on the job at the training station. Thus, a go-between has been eliminated. The employer can convey directly to the teacher-coordinator the need for a particular trainee to have extra practice, advanced work, or training in new processes that the trainee will need to know by a given time. Teacher-coordinators do not have to convince the related class instructors of this learning need, since they are related class instructors. However, in some plans, the related instruction is assigned to a teacher in an occupational course. Thus, in this **farm-out system**, student-learners are "farmed out" by the coordinator to someone else who will guide their in-school learnings.

Immediately a ***communications problem*** arises. The coordinator must communicate the employers' request for trainee instruction to other instructors. This may increase the chance of error and communication breakdown. Nonetheless, correlation of the related instruction with the cooperative experience must be done.

Second, a human relations problem arises. The coordinator must communicate the nature of each trainee's needs and convince the related class instructor to change the sequence of instruction to correspond to these needs. Furthermore, the related class instructor must realize that some learnings not normally in the course outline may have to be introduced for the trainees. The instructor must perceive the importance of the trainees' needing the opportunity to relate to job problems, even though most of their classmates are not having an on-the-job experience. The coordinator is asking that the other instructor change a teaching pattern—a most difficult assignment for both parties in many cases. Nevertheless, there are ways of accomplishing this task between two individuals who are adaptable and willing to relate to each other, who see the need to compromise, and who put the students first in classroom planning and management.

OBTAINING INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION FOR EACH TRAINEE

The ways of providing for the individualized needs of the cooperative student-learners in the related class are numerous; the following are a few actual cases that show the possibilities for a creative person—either the teacher-coordinator or the related class instructor.

CASE-IN-POINT

Case No. 1: Trainee X is being trained as a general machine operator. The training agreement states that the employer will have the trainee working on a lathe in a week. The coordinator has checked with the employer and seems satisfied with X's progress. X will indeed be put on the lathe if the 75 hours of classroom instruction needed have been completed. In talks with the instructor, the coordinator finds that even though the instructor is aware of the terms of the agreement, X will not have completed the required number of hours before the next week. The coordinator informs the employer of this fact and makes arrangements for X to be trained in a limited but well-supervised way on the machine at the training station. Meanwhile the machine shop instructor replaces another student with X in the rotation pattern to give the trainee needed practice.

Case No. 2: Trainee C is stationed as a cashier in a local store. On C's last evaluation the employer was very unhappy with cash shortages. The employer feels that the trainee is honest and that these shortages are caused by mistakes in making change. The coordinator relates the problem to the retailing instructor, and C is given intensive work in arithmetic (addition and subtraction

(Continued)

CASE-IN-POINT (Continued)

practice), counting out change to customers and checking out the register. This practice has taken precedence over all other classes for the week.

Case No. 3: Trainee B is assigned as a clerk-typist but has the goal of administrative assistant and is taking information processing. The employer indicates the trainee's keyboarding skills are not yet good enough for B to be assigned these tasks, but the employer will give keyboarding opportunities in a month or so when the trainee is ready. The related instructor continues regular instruction but arranges to have B given the equivalent of two days a week of practice.

Case No. 4: Trainee M has shown a great weakness in the ability to read. Training as a machine operator and the cooperative job have been making more and more demands on this ability. The employer has complained to the coordinator that the trainee often misunderstands written instructions simply because he/she cannot read. The coordinator confers with the school's reading specialist, and together they decide to use company forms, manuals, and other written items to "spark" the trainee's interest and to improve the trainee's reading skills.

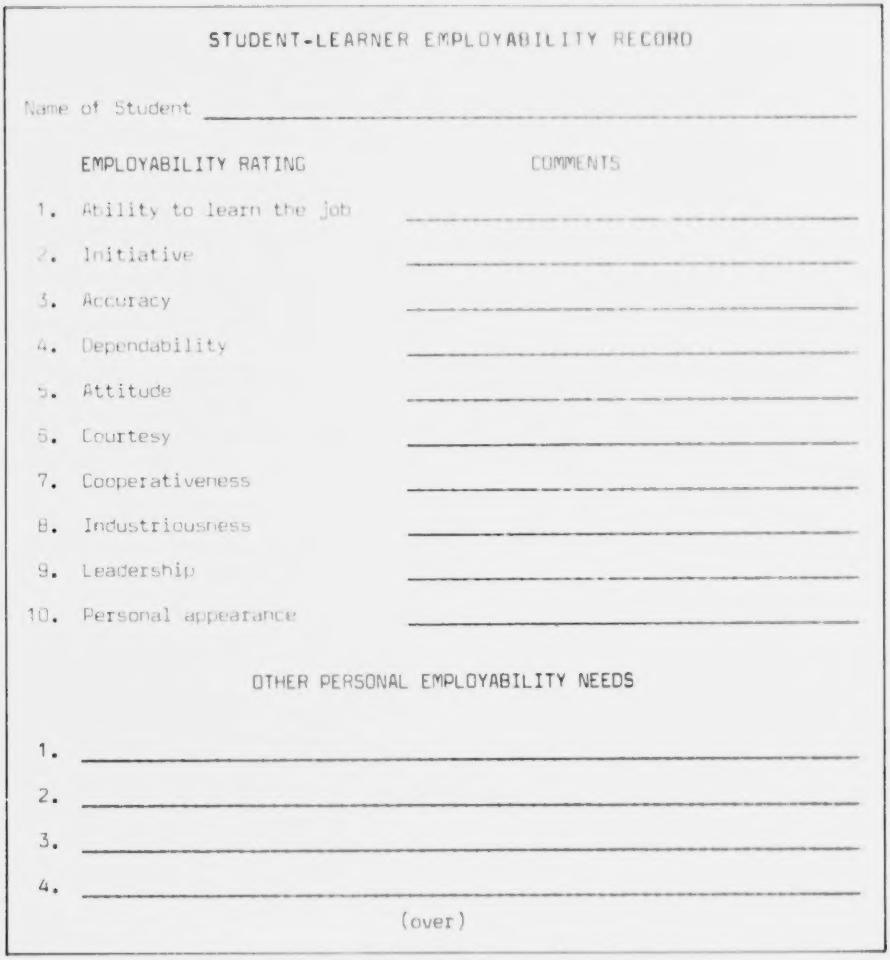
Case No. 5: Trainee W shows an interest in becoming a carpenter and is now employed in a directed cooperative experience as a carpenter's helper. W is having difficulty in mathematics instruction and has not been willing to cope with "textbook study" in order to sharpen math skills. The employer indicates to the coordinator (and to W) that W needs more work in math and helps the coordinator develop a list of examples of computations needed on the job. In the general math class, the instructor agrees to give W additional practice using a programmed text. As W progresses, time is given for W to go to the instructional resources center and work through a media presentation in the carrel. The instructor also decides to give W extra attention after school one day a week, and the coordinator arranges with the employer for this deviation in W's work schedule.

Feedback from Job to Classroom

The crucial period of adjustment for the typical student-learner is the first five or six weeks on the job. Student-learners must be familiar with the cooperative plan of instruction, must understand the responsibilities they are to assume, and must recognize the place of their teacher and job supervisors in this scheme of activities. Even though the coordinator interviewed each student-learner prior to entry into the program and gave each one at that time information on how the program operates, it is wise to include a two- or three-week unit in related instruction on "School and Business Relationships" as a first unit of the year. For certain students a job visitation early in the school year is a must. The coordinator may find it appropriate at the beginning of the semester to make coordination visitations more frequently than usually scheduled during the school year. Experienced coordinators seem to "get the feel" of when they should visit certain training stations. Prior records of evaluative visitations made in a pocket notebook, on a calendar desk pad, on a state coordination report, or in a job visitation portable index file will assist them in determining the frequency.

Some visitations are routine, while others result from problems reported by students or employers, but the most important after the first six weeks are those made to determine whether satisfactory progress is being made by student-learners. The step-by-step training plan should form the basis for the evaluation and **feedback** process.

A check on the status of this progress benefits the students, the employers, and the plan. If this check reveals that some student-learners have been kept unnecessarily long on certain activities, the teacher-coordinator, the job supervisors, and the employers should review the circumstances to see if beneficial changes can be made. If some student-learners are not performing up to expectations, the probable cause should be determined (see Figure 12-4 for some causal factors). Perhaps the students did not possess the career interest they professed to have at the beginning of the year, or they have discovered through their work at their training stations that the duties and responsibilities are not what they expected or that even after being transferred to new responsibilities, they feel let down. If dissatisfaction occurs on the part of a student-learner or the job supervisor to the extent that the educational objectives of that student, the reputation of the plan, or the successful operation of the business is in jeopardy, a three-way conference should be held between the teacher-coordinator, the job supervisor, and the student. A positive solution is desirable. If that is not possible, the student should be removed from the training station at the most opportune time—perhaps at the end of the se-



STUDENT-LEARNER EMPLOYABILITY RECORD

Name of Student ______________________________

EMPLOYABILITY RATING COMMENTS

1. Ability to learn the job ____________________
2. Initiative ____________________
3. Accuracy ____________________
4. Dependability ____________________
5. Attitude ____________________
6. Courtesy ____________________
7. Cooperativeness ____________________
8. Industriousness ____________________
9. Leadership ____________________
10. Personal appearance ____________________

OTHER PERSONAL EMPLOYABILITY NEEDS

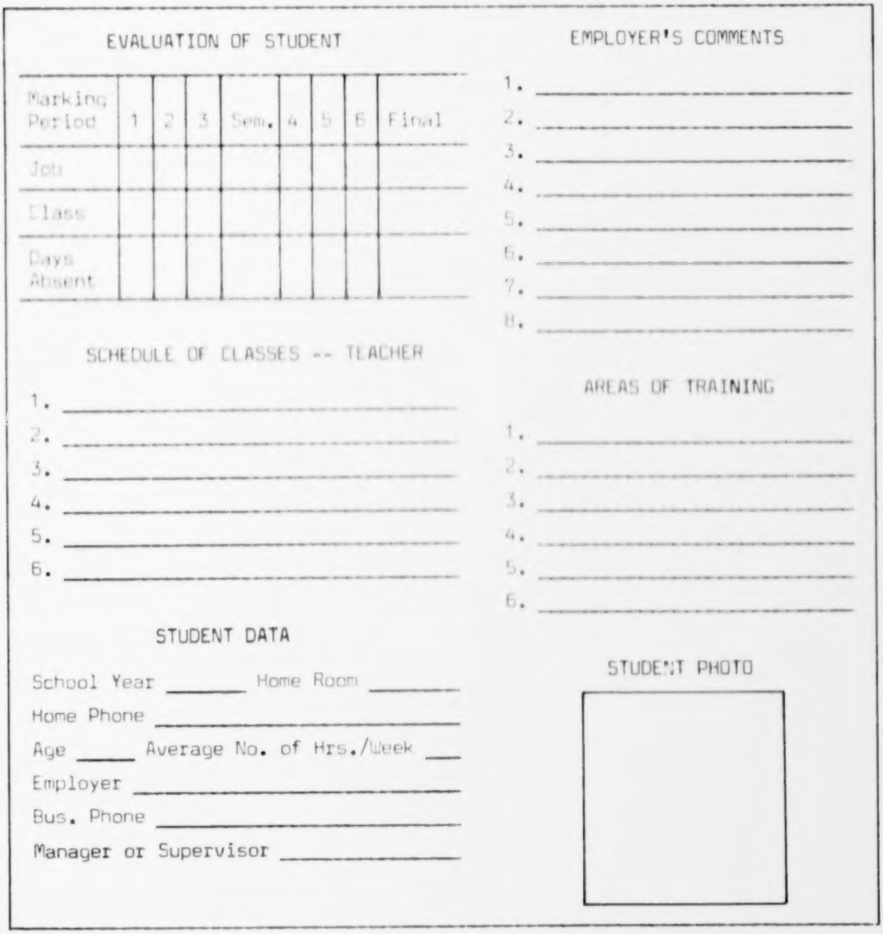
1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

(over)

FIG. 12-3a

mester, to preserve the school credit if the situation will not deteriorate markedly in the estimation of the coordinator.

Employers will appreciate an appraisal of the training stations. On occasion they can make excellent suggestions to the teacher-coordinator and to the guidance counselor on how to make selection and placement more effective. And sometimes the teacher-coordinator needs to remind employers that they may be overlooking a chance to tell the story of opportunities open to student-learners in their businesses. It is unfortunate to find at the end of the year that a graduate of the cooperative plan has been lost to the firm because



EVALUATION OF STUDENT

Marking Period	1	2	3	Sem.	4	5	6	Final
Job								
Class								
Days Absent								

SCHEDULE OF CLASSES -- TEACHER

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________

STUDENT DATA

School Year ________ Home Room ________

Home Phone ____________________

Age _____ Average No. of Hrs./Week ___

Employer ____________________

Bus. Phone ____________________

Manager or Supervisor ________________

EMPLOYER'S COMMENTS

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________
7. ____________________
8. ____________________

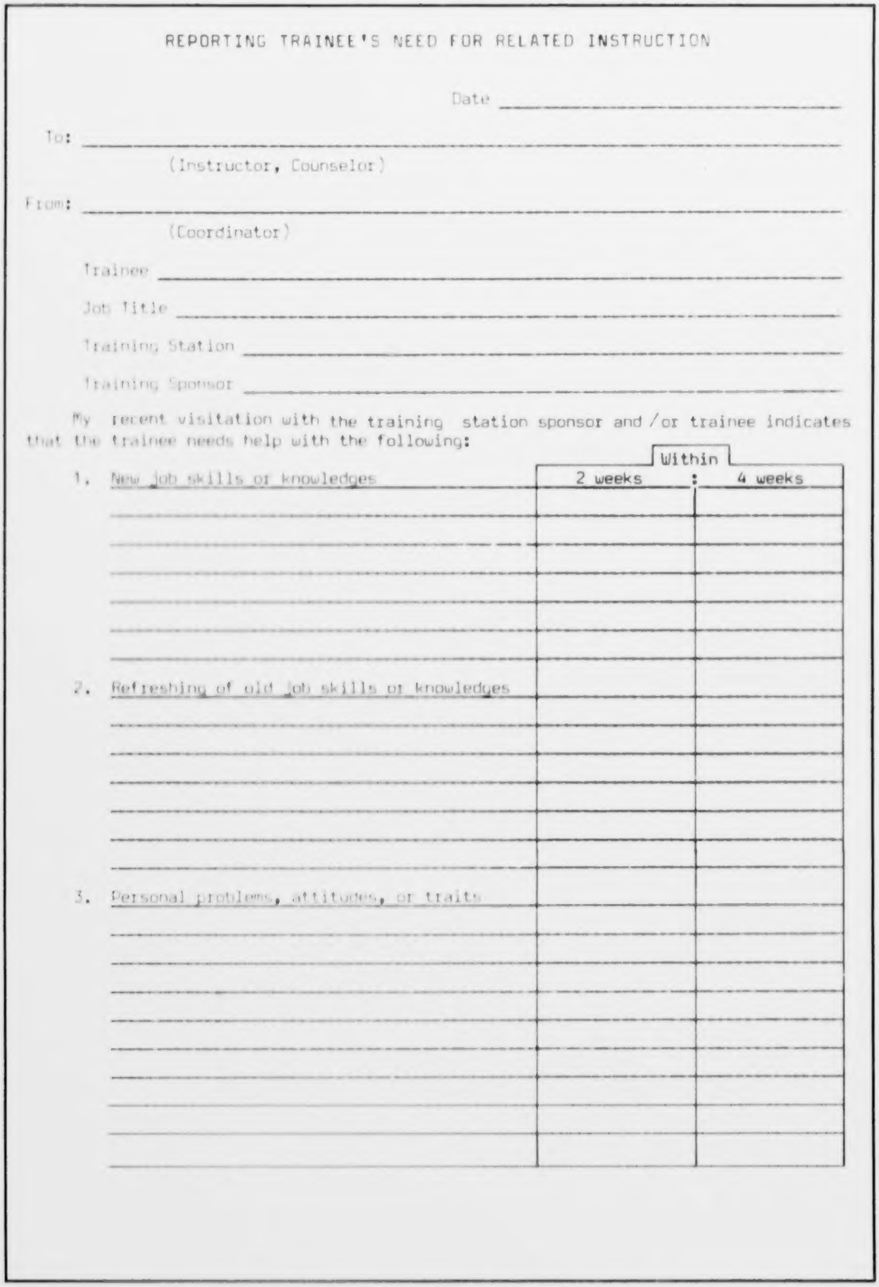
AREAS OF TRAINING

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________

STUDENT PHOTO

FIG. 12-3b

the employer waited too long to give some individual attention to full-time employment possibilities for the graduate within the business establishment. It is recommended that the coordinator ask the employers to set up specific interviews about April to inform students of their potential future (or lack of it) with the firm. The employer who has an intimate knowledge of an industry can perform a valuable guidance function in helping students determine where their future in the industry lies. After this interview, much of the remaining school year in the classroom can be devoted to individual instruction—remediation or the building of advanced skills.



REPORTING TRAINEE'S NEED FOR RELATED INSTRUCTION

Date ______________________

To: ______________________
(Instructor, Counselor)

From: ______________________
(Coordinator)

Trainee ______________________

Job Title ______________________

Training Station ______________________

Training Sponsor ______________________

My recent visitation with the training station sponsor and /or trainee indicates that the trainee needs help with the following:

	Within	
	2 weeks	4 weeks
1. New job skills or knowledges		
2. Refreshing of old job skills or knowledges		
3. Personal problems, attitudes, or traits		

FIG. 12-4

Measuring the Training Station Experience

Teacher-coordinators of cooperative plans have the task of measuring student performance that is quite unlike that faced by their teaching colleagues. Their unique evaluation problem is that of measuring performance (achievement) in the occupational laboratory. Not only must they measure progress, because their purpose is to help student-learners advance toward their career objectives, but they must also measure performance in order to determine grades for the student-learners when they are receiving credit for their laboratory experience.

Coordinators use several methods for measuring student achievement at the training stations: rating sheets for each grade period, the step-by-step training plan, the training profile, discussions with the job sponsor and observations of the trainees during visitations, and impressions gained in the classroom as the students use (or do not use) job knowledges in classroom discussions and activities.

RATING SHEETS

Almost every coordinator uses rating sheets as one measure of job performance (see Figure 12-5). Unfortunately, all too many coordinators rely solely on this method for grading purposes. In using rating sheets, some coordinators may be troubled by several questions. First, they ask, "Should the report card show a letter grade for each phase of the plan—related class and job—or should it show one grade that reflects both?" Many coordinators report two grades, on the theory that the student is enrolled for two courses. This may be desirable in those situations where the coordinator does not teach the related class. On the other hand, the theory of cooperative education holds that the plan is not one of two separate parts—school and job—but a ***total learning experience*** consisting of two integrated phases—the school classroom and the occupational laboratory. This calls for one grade reflecting a total achievement. One grade also has the advantage of preventing the image of A's for previously C students.

A second question posed by coordinators is whether or not the employer's rating should be used as the report card grade. It is good practice not to use a rating sheet that requires report card–type letter grades; instead, coordinators should use a rating sheet that describes performance in the language of the trade. The report card grade then becomes a matter of combining the message of the rating sheet, observations, and discussions with job sponsors.

RATING FORM FOR THE TRAINEE'S GENERAL EMPLOYABILITY COMPETENCE*

Trainee ________________________________ Employer ________________________________

Instructions to the Employer: Read each description carefully. For each, place a checkmark on the line over the phrase that describes this trainee most accurately. If you think this individual is halfway between two descriptions, make your mark about halfway between them on that line. Any additional comments you wish to make will be appreciated.

RELIABILITY

Cannot be depended on; requires constant supervision.	Must be reminded of duties; must be carefully supervised.	Satisfactorily performs all assigned duties; requires average supervision.	Is a good, dependable worker; requires little supervision.	Is completely reliable and able to carry on without supervision.

PERSONAL APPEARANCE

Appears slovenly and unkept.	Often neglects to take care of personal appearance.	Has an acceptable appearance; could make some improvement.	Usually is very careful of appearance.	Always presents an propriate, well-groomed appearance.

PERSONALITY

Makes a poor impression on others; is inconsiderate.	Is inclined to be indifferent.	Is polite and friendly when approached by others.	Is courteous in dealing with others; has a positive attitude.	Makes a favorable impression on all contacts.

FIG. 12-5

RATING FORM FOR THE TRAINEE'S GENERAL EMPLOYABILITY COMPETENCE* (Continued)

COOPERATION

Is hostile towards others; does not behave as member of a group.	Is a "lone wolf"; works alone and shuns others.	Gives trouble; cooperates when asked but does not volunteer.	Is willing to cooperate.	Is always very cooperative; has the knack of helping others.

ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK

Seems to resent the work; has no desire to learn.	Is willing to work but shows no interest or enthusiasm for job.	Seems to enjoy the work but is willing to "stand still" and not advance.	Shows interest in the work and has a desire to learn.	Shows a keen interest in the work and often takes the initiative to learn.

JOB SKILLS

Has a definite lack of job skills and knowledges.	Has limited knowledge; is lacking in some essentials.	Has an acceptable knowledge of routine and job skills.	Has an above-average grasp of the essential skills.	Possesses all the essential job skills and knowledges.

WORK HABITS

Has to be told several times before doing work.	Has poor work habits and is at times neglectful.	Follows instruction but sees no more to do.	Works efficiently; does more than is required.	Works rapidly and efficiently; is resourceful and finds extra things to do.

FIG. 12-5 (Continued)

RATING FORM FOR THE TRAINEE'S GENERAL EMPLOYABILITY COMPETENCE* (Continued)

What are this student's strongest points? ____

____

What weaknesses need to be corrected? ____

____

Comments: ____

____

____

Employer-Trainer ______________________ Date ______________________

---

*This rating sheet is general and should be used in conjunction with the step-by-step training plan, which is a measure of specific job skills and knowledges. Chapters 17 thru 22 give examples for each of these specialized areas.

FIG. 12-5 (Continued)

There are many reasons to support this practice. First, employers have varying standards: an A to one is a C to another. Second, many employers tend to overrate student-learners rather than risk being "too critical" on paper. Third, there is the temptation to overemphasize personal qualities and minimize actual job skills and abilities on the rating sheet. Rating sheets usually are not mailed back to the school but are discussed personally with the coordinator.

The last question raised by coordinators regarding rating sheets is whether or not they should be shown to the student-learners and their parents. Keeping parents informed seems desirable, but coordinators should keep in mind that the ratings are made by employers who may not wish parents to see critical comments. Coordinators know the training stations and can interpret the ratings, while parents might misinterpret. However, parents should be informed of progress; coordinators might prepare brief written evaluations for the parents at the end of each semester.

In summary, evaluation of job progress should be made frequently, and students should be involved in the process so that they can discuss strengths and weaknesses and commit themselves to improvement.

OTHER METHODS OF EVALUATION ON THE JOB

While the rating sheet is commonly used for evaluation, it needs to be supplemented by some of the following:

1. ***Observation.***—On-the-spot observation of attitudes, skills, and knowledges, through visits to the training stations by the teacher-coordinator, is essential.
2. ***Self-evaluation by the student-learner.***—Rating scales and self-rating sheets can assist the trainee in self-evaluation.
3. ***Job sponsors.***—In addition to checking the rating sheet, many job sponsors are quite willing to assist in the evaluation of job manuals or merchandise manuals, if procedures are suggested by the teacher-coordinator.
4. ***Co-workers.***—With encouragement, student-learners may enlist the assistance of other employees to evaluate their work and tell them how to perform better.
5. ***Production standards.***—Of course, there are realistic measures based upon production, such as dollars of sales in the retail store, units of production in the industrial establishment, and pieces of correspondence produced or the number of items processed or filed in the office

Improving Instruction at the Training Stations

In an on-going plan there is all too frequently an assumption by a busy coordinator that the training station personnel know their responsibilities for on-the-job instruction and will carry them out efficiently. Unfortunately, employers and employees are busy people also and, even with the best of intentions, may neglect their responsibilities as the "downtown faculty." Improving instruction at training stations is a continuous task for coordinators, particularly as new training stations are added, as personnel change in established training stations, and as individual student-learners grow and develop at different rates.

EVALUATING TRAINING STATIONS

It is advisable to review existing training stations annually and to establish new training stations. The composition of the group of student-learners in a given plan will vary from year to year, necessitating perhaps a change in the variety of training stations available. A certain training station that has been used may no longer be available for any number of reasons. Business conditions may have changed so keeping a student-learner can no longer be justified, or the firm may no longer exist. In certain instances, a job supervisor moves, and a suitable person to handle student-learners cannot be found.

Every training station should be reviewed at the end of the school year by comparing the training plan that was established at the beginning of the year with the end-of-the-year report on what actually transpired in the areas of training and experience for the student-learner. The list of duties and responsibilities actually provided for the student during the school year becomes a profile of the training station. The coordinator should return to the manager or job supervisor and say, "Here is a picture of the opportunities for learning that you provided our student-learner last year. This was a fine effort. If similar experiences can be provided during the coming year, we would like to cooperate with you by sending you appropriate potential trainees for interview." Or, in some instances the teacher-coordinator may have to return and say, "Here is a picture of the learning experiences that you provided our student-learner last year. This narrow profile needs to be adjusted to a more representative training situation, and I hope you will help use this situation as an educational experience for a student next year."

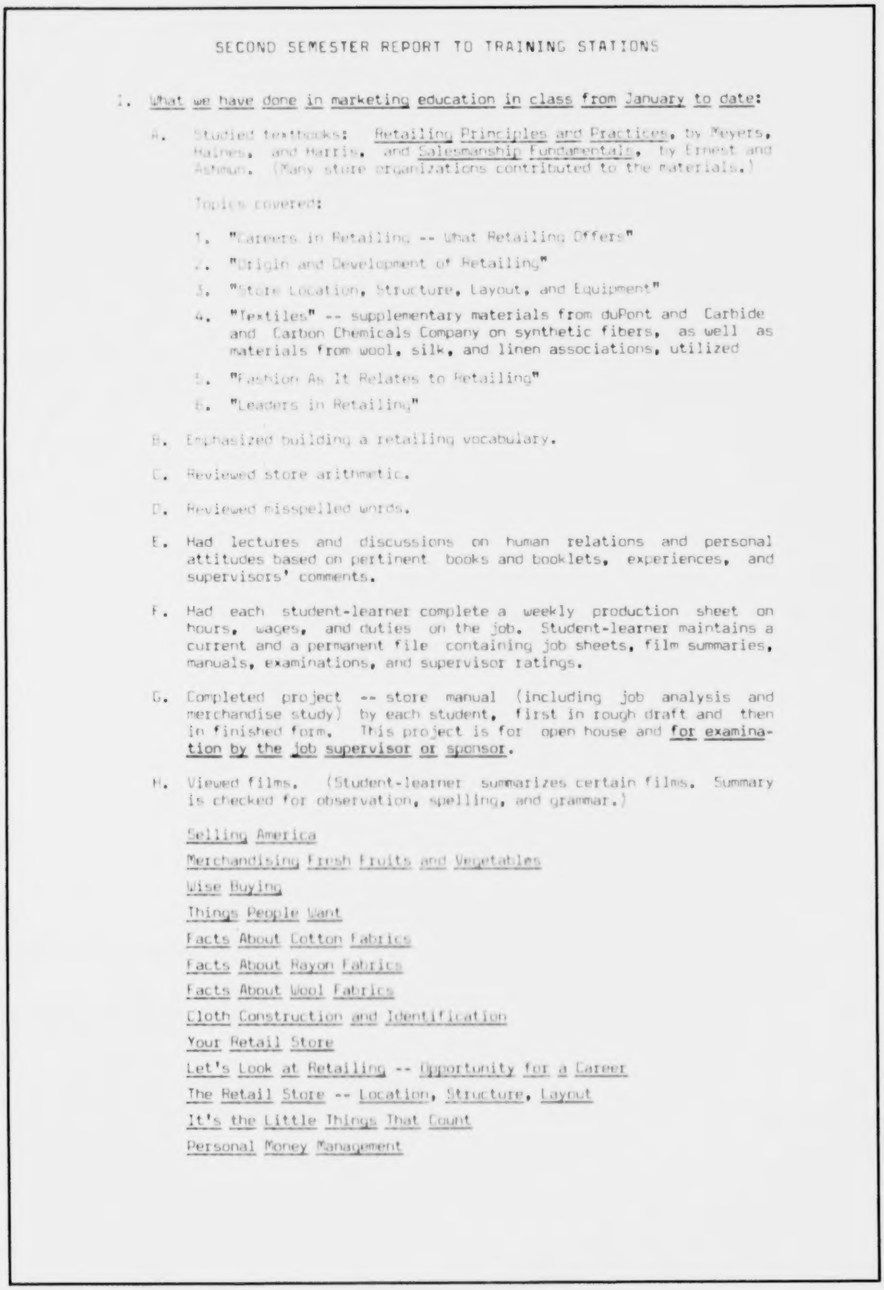
The advisory committee should be consulted when results obtained in the various training stations are being reviewed. Members can be helpful in suggesting ways of enhancing the educational experiences of students in various training stations. They can suggest new contacts for the purpose of establishing new training stations.

CARRYING ON A SPONSOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The business industry will directly benefit from efforts put forth to develop the training abilities of the job sponsors. There are many times when job sponsors are too busy to pay attention to potential learning situations. At other times, however, learning does not take place because the persons under whom the student-learners are working do not know how to relay their work knowledge to the student-learners. Too little is being done by teacher-coordinators to assist job sponsors or supervisors to know how to aid in the training of student-learners. For the purpose of explaining the learning process in simple terms, a meeting called at the beginning of the school year for job sponsors will prove effective. Tactful suggestions by the teacher-coordinator to the job sponsor during coordination visits will be helpful to all concerned. Excellent materials on "how to train" and "how to supervise," useful in working with adults on coordination visits or in formal classroom adult education, are available to the coordinator.

REPORTING ON INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES TO COOPERATING EMPLOYERS

Some coordinators provide job sponsors, employers, and advisory committee members with a mid-term report of instructional activities. This helps members of the "downtown faculty" recognize some of the elements of instruction being carried out in the classroom and helps to enhance their feeling of being an integral part of the training plan (see Figure 12-6). If student study guides, manuals, or notebooks are prepared, job supervisors may be involved as resource persons.



SECOND SEMESTER REPORT TO TRAINING STATIONS

I. What we have done in marketing education in class from January to date:

A. Studied textbooks: Retailing Principles and Practices, by Meyers, Haines, and Harris, and Salesmanship Fundamentals, by Ernest and Ashmun. (Many store organizations contributed to the materials.)

Topics covered:

1. "Careers in Retailing -- What Retailing Offers"
2. "Origin and Development of Retailing"
3. "Store Location, Structure, Layout, and Equipment"
4. "Textiles" -- supplementary materials from duPont and Carbide and Carbon Chemicals Company on synthetic fibers, as well as materials from wool, silk, and linen associations, utilized
5. "Fashion As It Relates to Retailing"
6. "Leaders in Retailing"

B. Emphasized building a retailing vocabulary.

C. Reviewed store arithmetic.

D. Reviewed misspelled words.

E. Had lectures and discussions on human relations and personal attitudes based on pertinent books and booklets, experiences, and supervisors' comments.

F. Had each student-learner complete a weekly production sheet on hours, wages, and duties on the job. Student-learner maintains a current and a permanent file containing job sheets, film summaries, manuals, examinations, and supervisor ratings.

G. Completed project -- store manual (including job analysis and merchandise study) by each student, first in rough draft and then in finished form. This project is for open house and **for examination by the job supervisor or sponsor**.

H. Viewed films. (Student-learner summarizes certain films. Summary is checked for observation, spelling, and grammar.)

Selling America
Merchandising Fresh Fruits and Vegetables
Wise Buying
Things People Want
Facts About Cotton Fabrics
Facts About Rayon Fabrics
Facts About Wool Fabrics
Cloth Construction and Identification
Your Retail Store
Let's Look at Retailing -- Opportunity for a Career
The Retail Store -- Location, Structure, Layout
It's the Little Things That Count
Personal Money Management

FIG. 12-6. (Adapted from a report developed by Dr. Herbert L. Ross when he was a teacher-coordinator.)

II. What we plan to do in marketing education in class to the end of the school year:

A. Study textbook: Salesmanship, by Wingate and Samson.

Topics to be covered:

1. "Meeting Consumer Demand"
2. "Retail Advertising"
3. "Window and Interior Display"
4. "Buying the Goods"
5. "Receiving and Pricing the Goods"
6. "Credits and Collections"
7. "Store Finance and Accounting" (also student-learner's personal income tax reports)

B. Continue vocabulary, arithmetic, and spelling review.

C. Continue discussion on human relations and personal attitudes.

D. View films.

Telling the Whole Story
Keeping Your Neck In
Getting Together
Being Agreeable
It's Up to You
Directing Your Dollars
Career Opportunities in the Restaurant Industry
Sell As Customers Like It
Grocery film from National Association of Retail Grocers
Retailing film from Retail Merchants Association
Sound slide films from G. C. Murphy Company

E. Complete activities.

1. Class club meetings based on parliamentary procedure.
2. Display to be changed weekly. Student secures material from training station.
3. Trip to St. Louis (guided tour of Famous-Barr Co.).
4. Trip to Leadership Training Conference.
5. Written project on advertising.
6. Bulletin board display.
7. Tape recording of public relations activities presented on radio.
8. Speakers: Former ME students now working downtown, a present job supervisor.
9. Tentative tours: dress factory (re: textiles), stores (re: display), newspaper plant (re: display advertising).
10. Employer-employee appreciation banquet.

III. Suggestions for job supervisors:

A. Rechallenge student-learners with new and varied responsibilities where potential is evident.

B. Urge student-learners to make the most of remaining school time, keeping their academic subjects in good order.

FIG. 12-6 (Continued)

Questions and Activities

1. Explain in terms of the theory of the learning process why the correlation process is fundamental to the cooperative plan of instruction and why the work experience plan suffers from this lack of correlation.
2. Describe students in at least three levels of cooperative plans, and then analyze their competencies in planning and managing their own learning situations. Indicate how the teacher-coordinator might assist each type of student in becoming self-sufficient in learning to learn.
3. Write up on the form of a classroom handout three problems that occur on the job. Also, provide a set of suggestions that will help the teacher make effective use of these problems.
4. Describe a student-learner's career objective, present on-the-job situation, and background of readiness. Then, present a series of learning projects for the student-learner that would be relevant and correlated with the occupational experience.
5. Student-learners usually resist the filing of the weekly training report form. They say they "forgot." List some ways of motivating them to turn these in; also describe what you would do as a teacher-coordinator if they "forgot."
6. Describe a student-learner's current training assignment, career objective, and readiness and style of learning. For this student-learner, list the specific individual learning activities that you believe would be profitable and explain why.
7. For a given occupational education area using the cooperative plan of instruction, would you recommend or deny the use of the "farm-out" method of instruction. Why?
8. Regarding the use of the grade on the report card as being one for the entire experience or one for each part (school and job), which can you justify? Give reasons in a memo to other departmental faculty as well as to involved administrators.
9. Which is more important—a rating of the skills performance on the job or the personal qualities of the employee? Explain your answer.
10. Describe a sponsor development program by showing the goals, the structure of the program, the timing, and the activities. Who would be engaged in this program as participants and as instructors? Who would provide the financial resources?
11. Describe how the coordinator can help the trainee and the job sponsor be aware of the need for correlation; also describe how they can be involved in the process to make it effective.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

13

The Maturing of the Cooperative Plan

A graduate of a cooperative plan gets some advice from his superior before being sent on to management training.

KEY CONCEPT: *Teacher-coordinators must assess, evaluate, and cultivate cooperative education in order to maintain and improve its quality.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify those maintenance activities that are necessary to preserve a quality plan.
- Identify those activities that are necessary to improve a cooperative plan.
- Plan a schedule of activities within a realistic time frame.
- Justify an extended contract to accomplish the demands of a local cooperative plan.
- Explain why complete and accurate records and reports are important.

KEY TERMS

alumni group
employer-employee appreciation events
extended contract
public relations program
recurring activities

The cooperative plan, like every other plan of instruction, should grow and develop to its potential. A carefully planned initiation is required, as shown in Chapter 6, and the basic elements of the system must be attended. Evaluation shows how well the basic plan functions and the point at which the improvement activities commence. Students in graduate courses and local administrators at conferences and workshops have often asked, "How long does a program (plan) take to mature to its potential quality?" The cooperative plan, because of its intricate set of relationships both within the school and between the school and the community, requires a period of maturation. Teacher-coordinators should be pleased if the plan is of high quality three years after its initiation. This does not mean they have to subscribe to an initial low quality of performance, but it is a recognition of the time demanded to educate all parties in the plan about their responsibilities. The number of people to be dealt with are many, their values and educational perceptions are varied, and the communications problem is immense. What should be the goal of the plan at the beginning is ***quality*** in the basic elements with emphasis later on ***improving*** the desirable conditions.

Establishing Maintenance and Improvement Goals

After a cooperative occupational education plan has been instituted and has been operational for a year or two, teacher-coordinators may discover that a new set of activities requires attention. Just as "green thumb" gardeners pay attention to the maintenance of their efforts, so must teacher-coordinators if their original efforts are to blossom into quality plans that grow and yield extra quality. After the hectic and sometimes emergency nature of efforts in new plans, teacher-coordinators design a set of actions to improve the plans and to clear up deficiencies. Some of these activities require attention but once a year, while some demand monthly or even weekly attention. What is important is that the plan continue to grow towards excellence with even the minor details attended to. If this is done, the weak plan of the first year will flower, and the strong plan will not decline.

The importance of a continuous plan of ***maintenance*** as well as ***improvement*** activities cannot be overemphasized. An educational effort that involves the time and energy of so many groups within and without the school institution can never be static. A plan moves forward, or it begins to slide downhill. It is never resting at an equilibrium but rather is dynamic and reactive to various groups and their moods and situational changes. Educators know well that unless the effort is given proper maintenance attention, its effect diminishes. Almost every supervisor and teacher-educator can describe case histories of successful cooperative plans that were allowed to degenerate into ineffective learning situations when teacher-coordinators began to rest on their laurels.

All the activities discussed in this chapter might well have been included in previous chapters as essentials for getting started. But no coordinator can do everything the first year; therefore, certain activities were omitted earlier, because they were seen as those that could help the plan reach its potential.

Scheduling Improvement Activities Throughout the Year

There are some actions by teacher-coordinators that are connected with the entire year, others have their maximum effectiveness at certain times during the year. Thus, these maintenance and improvement activities are listed in the following paragraphs according to categorization of time. However, teacher-coordinators should recognize that each action is not in every local case the product of time—each is more the product of the on-going situation and should be judged for its cost-benefits. And each should be seen as a generalization that provides a useful classification system for reading and study as well as for the making of a local plan of action.

ACTIVITIES DURING SUMMER MONTHS

The year-long contract is particularly essential as educational institutions change their approaches to service to the community. Some school districts feel that summer school programs are in a sense a "fifth quarter" and that they contribute to the over-all enrichment of the districts' offerings. In some cases, coordinators have the responsibility for adult training and development and need the summer to plan and to promote. But even more decisive in the argument for the 12-month employment of coordinators is the tendency of districts to offer, in the summer, programs of occupational exploration in which the coordinators with their community contacts serve as admirable resources. In short, districts profit from perceiving coordinators as their community resources for the full year and recognize that their absence in the summer tends to allow the community to see the district as less than a full-time partner in the local situation.

Some of the major **recurring activities** in which coordinators should engage during the summer months of the **extended contract** are as follows:

Month	*Suggested Activities*
June–July:	Prepare annual reports for local administration, advisory committee, and state department of education.
	Check on ensuing year's trainees placed in summer jobs.
	Organize instructional and administrative files.
	Develop the follow-up plan and instrumentation.
	Interview last-minute trainee applicants.
	Improve professional qualifications through additional graduate work, occupational experience, and self-study.
	Teach an exploratory program during the summer term.
	Review and upgrade career training plans for fall students.
	Improve teaching outlines.
August:	Attend teacher-coordinators' conference and workshops.
	Recheck training stations with which contacts were made in the spring.
	Establish additional training stations, if needed.
	Start student-learner interviews and placements.
	Check new instructional materials and physical arrangements.

ACTIVITIES RECURRING DURING THE FIRST PART OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

A monthly calendar of activities beginning with the opening of the school term might look like this:

Month	*Suggested Activities*
September:	Arrange classroom for related instruction.
	Hold orientation meeting for student-learners.
	Start related class instruction.
	Complete student-learner placements.
	Hold advisory committee meeting; present progress report.
	Initiate the student organization program.
October:	Participate in National Careers in ______ Week activities.

(Continued)

Month	*Suggested Activities*
	Participate in area student organization activities.
	Visit training stations—plan purposeful visits.
November:	Recognize specific instructional needs of student-learners.
	Speak about cooperative plan before service/civic clubs.
	Participate in National Education Week activities—all groups.
December:	Take first steps toward career objectives.
	Attend convention of American Vocational Association.
January:	Give progress report to cooperating employers.

ACTIVITIES RECURRING DURING THE SPRING SEMESTER

In on-going cooperative education plans, teacher-coordinators carry on activities in the spring that are preparatory to handling the new group of student-learners for the coming school year. Some of these are similar to those spring activities described for teacher-coordinators of newly established plans.

Month	*Suggested Activities*
February:	Training station visitation—check on effectiveness of student-learner selection and placement; encourage counselors to make some visitations with you.
	Check progress of step-by-step training plans.
	Plan employer-employee appreciation banquet.
	Participate in Vocational Education Association activities—all groups.
March:	Disseminate student guidance information.
	Prepare news releases on cooperative plan.
	Visit homerooms and assemblies.
	Arrange for supplementary testing of prospective student-learners, if needed.
	Interview prospective student-learners.
	Assist in class scheduling.

(Continued)

Month	*Suggested Activities*
April or May:	Review physical facility needs for coming year.
	Review instructional material needs, and place requisitions.
	Teach a short course on orientation to cooperative education.
	Hold employer-employee appreciation banquet.
	Organize alumni group for the coming year.
	Evaluate adult education needs.
	Follow up last year's graduates.
	Plan National Education Week activities.
	Plan Vocational Education Week activities.

Using Advisory Committees to Advantage

All plans utilizing the work environment to furnish vocational experiences need advisory committees to help provide direction and make the best use of resources. In a small community, one advisory committee might serve the business, marketing, and trade and industrial cooperative plans as a joint committee. There should be a separate committee for each of the occupational plans in a medium-sized city.

Advisory committees can meet as often as once a month if worthwhile projects or activities are planned and are available. The committees will function efficiently if each member has a definite part in planning the over-all operations of the plan. Such activities might include:

1. Speaking for cooperative education plans as a resource person in class, on student organization programs, or at employer-employee appreciation dinners.
2. Helping to obtain proper training stations.
3. Suggesting and helping to secure classroom materials and equipment.
4. Making arrangements for students interested in certain specialties to gain additional insight into those activities.
5. Investigating sources of trade magazines and other trade publications and acquiring these publications.
6. Acquainting coordinators with influential employers and labor leaders in the community and making arrangements for coordinators to talk to various trade groups.

PROMOTIONAL EFFORTS THROUGH ADVISORY COMMITTEES

One of the ways of making advisory committees meaningful for on-going programs is to use the collective wisdom and talent of their membership in a continuing public relations program. Advisory committees can be involved in activities such as:

1. Developing brochures on employment opportunities that can be used with students, parents, and counselors.
2. Assisting in the school's activities in connection with National Education Week, etc.
3. Making speeches at meetings of the members' trade and professional association.
4. Publicizing the cooperative plan in internal publications of the members' firms.
5. Appearing on radio and television programs with students and coordinators.

Improving Relationships with Other Agencies in the Community

Directors of work experience programs or cooperative occupational education plans within the school institutions who relate to their students as individuals rather than as nonentities who are enrolled for just one period in a given classroom. If they recognize their responsibilities to their students, coordinators know that each student is an individual and each may have need for the services of community agencies beyond the walls of the institution. In short, coordinators realize that students are "whole" persons and that they will or will not learn, depending upon not only their classroom experience and that of their training stations but also their physical and psychological readiness to do so.

THE COORDINATOR'S RELATIONSHIP WITH UNIONS

Union support of the cooperative plan is just as vital as is the support of business and industry, and in some cases, it may be even more important. It is possible to have an industry's support but not be able to implement the plan because its union is not willing to participate. On the other hand, a supportive union may convince a hesitant employer to take part in the plan.

Almost every city of size has a joint labor council composed of representatives from all key unions. The support of these group members is essential because of the assistance they can lend in individual companies. If the council is seen as the main focus and source of support, the coordinator should be able to branch out to union representatives for various trades and hence to those within each company.

Operating hand-in-hand with labor and management are the apprenticeship committees. Therefore, communication with the joint apprenticeship committees and with apprenticeship coordinators within the educational institutions in the community is important.

THE COORDINATOR'S RELATIONSHIP WITH THE COMMUNITY

Community ignorance of the school's occupational and career development plan can be the coordinator's biggest hurdle. Most people oppose that which they do not understand, or at best, they are apathetic. Therefore, coordinators must involve many segments of the community in a continuing plan to gain understanding, even if not outright support. The plan must be shown to be a success, because when people are involved in something they view as successful, they become its legitimizers. In effect, they are proud and vocal about their part in something that is a community-recognized success.

Community relationships are not permanent, since in most areas the mobility of people is substantial, and those convinced today move elsewhere to be replaced by others who must be informed and then convinced. Coordinators should constantly remind themselves of the very ephemeral value of impromptu efforts. These often are guised in a moment of goodwill, when everyone is supportive of the school and is dedicated to what is thought to be right. But such moments are transitory and die from the interference of other needs or the later preoccupation with more immediate concerns. The tendency of some coordinators to bask in what is at best a temporary glow of success must be guarded against in community contacts. A planned schedule of public relations activities is more effective than impromptu attempts to publicize the plan. Publicity should be a continuous process, with the coordinator using a variety of media such as the following:

1. Local newspaper articles on training activities, plan information, and success stories of trainees.
2. Flyers, brochures, and letters directed to trainees and employers.
3. Presentations by trainees (in their sometimes colloquial style) before trainee groups, service clubs, and employer-employee appreciation groups.
4. Career clinics for trainees conducted by cooperative trainees and participating employers.

5. Employer visits to the institutional training site and field trips by instructors to business and industry locations.
6. Displays and exhibits of trainees' work and activities in the institution and in the community.
7. Personal contacts by coordinators with individuals who have interests and concerns related to the plan.
8. Radio and television appearances by cooperative trainees, employers, and coordinators.
9. Seminars and short training sessions conducted by coordinators for people in business and industry. These could be "How to Train" and "How to Supervise."

Participation by community leaders on advisory committees and representatives of social agencies in the development of cooperative training stations is very important to the success of the human resource cooperative plan.

THE COORDINATOR'S RELATIONSHIP WITH THE STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

As trainees enter the final phase of their individual plans—permanent job placement—the coordinators' responsibilities may overlap those of the state employment service (SES), because placement begins with job development.

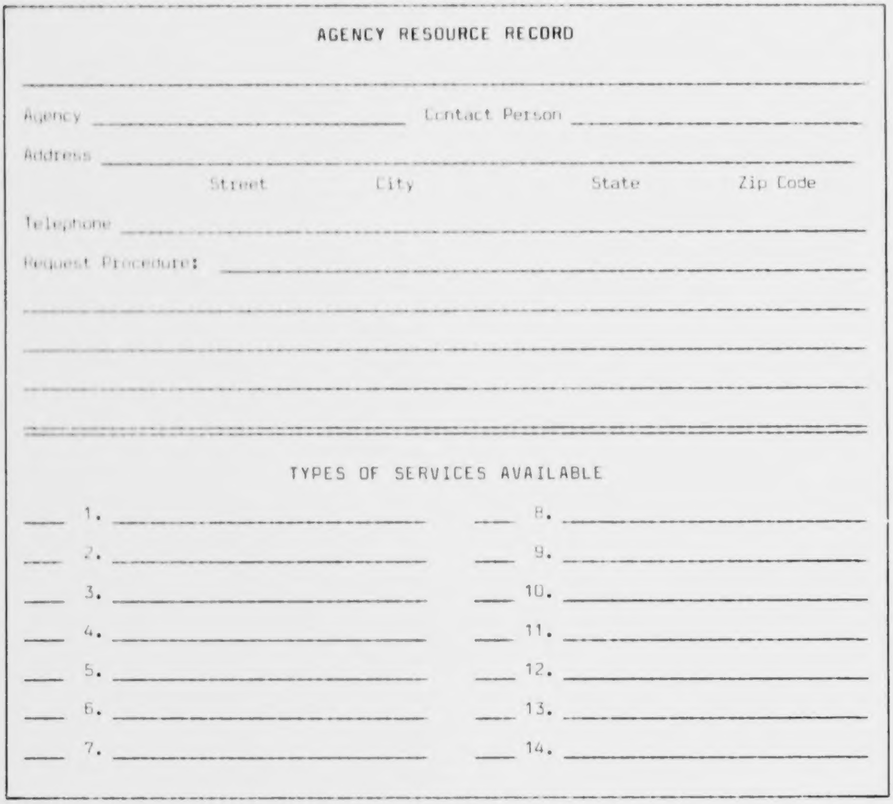
Because of the importance of placement and follow-up, a cooperative working relationship must exist between the SES and the coordinators. The coordinators can act as field representatives of active job development, and the SES can relay job orders to the coordinators to be used. The SES can also canvass employers for job needs (usually by telephone) and thus provide more job resources for coordinators. It is usually important for coordinators to report all referrals and results to the SES for its records.

Such a cooperative arrangement will help the coordinators, the SES, the employers, and the trainees.

THE COORDINATOR'S RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHER AGENCIES

All cooperative occupational education plans are designed to meet the personal and occupational needs of students. Therefore, it is necessary for coordinators to secure the cooperation of other, already existing, agencies that can help the trainees meet their immediate needs (see Figure 13-1).

Coordinators will need to draw upon many resources in order to make their trainees more employable, to provide them with counseling, and to help



AGENCY RESOURCE RECORD

Agency ____________________ Contact Person ____________________

Address ____
Street City State Zip Code

Telephone ____

Request Procedure: ____

TYPES OF SERVICES AVAILABLE

___ 1. _______________	___ 8. _______________
___ 2. _______________	___ 9. _______________
___ 3. _______________	___ 10. _______________
___ 4. _______________	___ 11. _______________
___ 5. _______________	___ 12. _______________
___ 6. _______________	___ 13. _______________
___ 7. _______________	___ 14. _______________

FIG. 13-1

some with medical and other resources. Students must be treated no differently from others if they are to profit from a cooperative occupational education plan.

Reporting and Accountability

The development of useful records and reports is recognized by effective coordinators as a very important activity. The preparation of useful reports is vital and should not be considered as wasted effort. Effective coordinators recognize early the need for records that reflect a true image of the plan, allowing evaluation, back up to requests, and demonstration of effectiveness. A successful coordinator recognizes and understands the administration's need to justify every aspect of the curriculum and to give fiscal evidence to the local board, to the state department of public instruction, and to any other agency that funds the plan. Public relations built upon facts about the local plan will be more effective than unsupported opinion.

Administrators need to justify every part of their curricula in terms of its contribution to the educational program of their schools in proportion to the budget allocated for its support. Administrators are fiscally responsible to their local boards, to the state department of public instruction, and to any other agency that funds their programs.

A coordinator typically makes reports to two groups: the local administration and, in the case of reimbursed programs, the state department of public instruction.

STATE AND LOCAL REPORTS

Those coordinators who feel that state reports are bothersome probably do not recognize that state government must justify, by evidence, the expenditures made of public funds. They also may not perceive that administrative staff members need the information necessary to fulfill their roles as consultants, providing leadership in program development and engaging in research.

The basic reports required by most states are discussed in Chapter 5.

Continuing Public Relations Programs

Because of the importance of continuing **public relations programs**, coordinators should be aware of the following publicity techniques that can lead to good public relations. Public relations do not begin and end with a specific activity. Public relations are constantly present in every organization and in every individual. Figure 13-2 illustrates in chart form the many activities from which an appropriate public relations program can be chosen.

Competition for the attention of the public is extremely keen. In order for any organization to tell its story to the public through public information media, its efforts must be well planned and executed. Public information media with which coordinators will wish to work include newspapers and radio and television stations. Editors and program directors have the responsibility of bringing news to the people of their area. They must evaluate information made available to them and then utilize that which is of greatest importance to their readers and listeners. Thus, in public information activities, coordinators are in competition with national and international news agencies, as well as with other community organizations and individuals. When information submitted is published or broadcast, it is not a matter of the editor or the program director granting a favor.

Educational Audiences	Distribution of Descriptive Brochures	Invitation to Visit Co-op Classes	Prompt Dispatch of Thank-You's by Coordinator	Invitation to Participate in Workshops, etc.	Radio (Spot Announcements, Quizzes, Interviews)	News Releases About Radio Participations	Newspaper News Items, Editorials, Feature Stories	Advance Notices About Coming Special Events	Follow-Up News Releases on Special Events	Contact -- by Student Public-Relations Com.	Report of Local Job Openings at Christmastime	Personal Conferences with -- by the Coordinator	Distribution of Bulletins About Co-op Courses	Invitation as Guest or Sponsor at Co-op Banquet
School administrators, board of education members	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community organizations, such as Lions, Vets, PTA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Department heads in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Businesspersons in community	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Local gov't agencies, such as VA, employment bureau	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guidance personnel and teachers in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Consumers, homemakers, consumer organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Labor organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Legislators	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Business organizations, such as BBB, C of C	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newspaper, radio, and television personnel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Parents and guardians	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Students -- present, past, and potential	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Miscellaneous groups, such as religious organizations, libraries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

FIG. 13-2

Educational Audiences	Invitation to Be Judge at a Co-op Contest	Invitation to Visit or Speak at Co-op Organization	Invitation to Attend or Speak at Career Assembly	Send -- Bulletin About Pre-Christmas Training	Report on Community Adult Training Needs	Invitation to Visit Laboratory Shows	Talks by Graduates When -- Are Present	Talks by Coordinator When -- Are Present	Exhibit (Posters, Charts, etc.) About Program	Invitation to Showing of Career Movies	Attendance of Coordinator at Affairs for --	News Release on Follow-Up Study of Graduates	Television Announcements, Interviews, etc.	News Releases About Television Participations
School administrators, board of education members	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community organizations, such as Lions, Vets, PTA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Department heads in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Businesspersons in community	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Local gov't agencies, such as VA, employment bureau	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guidance personnel and teachers in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Consumers, homemakers, consumer organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Labor organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Legislators	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Business organizations, such as BBB, C of C	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newspaper, radio, and television personnel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Parents and guardians	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Students -- present, past, and potential	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Miscellaneous groups, such as religious organizations, libraries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

FIG. 13-2 (Continued)

Educational Audiences	Prompt Dispatch of Thank-You's by Class	Publication of Articles in Media Read by --	News Release on Big Doings Like "Career Day"	Invitation to Speak in the Co-op Class	Periodic Report on Status of Plan	Invitation to Attend Showing of Training Films	Offer to Help -- Set Up or Publicize -- a Plan	Conduct Survey of Community Adult Training Needs	Help of Students in Organization's Community Project	Sponsorship of Local Stores	Participation by -- in "Career Day"	Invitation to -- to Accompany Co-op Field Trip	Mention of -- in News Releases	Displays of Photographs of Co-op Activities
School administrators, board of education members	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community organizations, such as Lions, Vets, PTA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Department heads in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Businesspersons in community	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Local gov't agencies, such as VA, employment bureau	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guidance personnel and teachers in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Consumers, homemakers, consumer organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Labor organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Legislators	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Business organizations, such as BBB, C of C	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newspaper, radio, and television personnel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Parents and guardians	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Students -- present, past, and potential	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Miscellaneous groups, such as religious organizations, libraries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

FIG. 13-2 (Continued)

Educational Audiences	Make Survey of Christmas Employment Needs	Distribution of Co-op Activity News Bulletin	Exhibits at PTA, Teacher and Trade Conventions	Participation in Contests Sponsored by --	News Releases to Publications Sponsored by --	Make Survey of Public Reactions to Co-op Service	Make Survey of Public Reaction to Local Industries	Bulletin Board Displays in Local Stores	Bulletin Board Displays at -- Meetings	Distribution of Career Information Literature	Window or Counter Display About Program	Distribution of Course Enrollment Statistics	Sponsor "Co-op Night" at School; Invite --	Arrangement for -- to Issue Co-op News Release
School administrators, board of education members	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community organizations, such as Lions, Vets, PTA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Department heads in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Businesspersons in community	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Local gov't agencies, such as VA, employment bureau	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guidance personnel and teachers in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Consumers, homemakers, consumer organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Labor organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Legislators	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Business organizations, such as BBB, C of C	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newspaper, radio, and television personnel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Parents and guardians	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Students -- present, past, and potential	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Miscellaneous groups, such as religious organizations, libraries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

FIG. 13-2 (Continued)

Educational Audiences	Arrangement for -- to Issue Co-op News Release	Talks Presented by Student with -- Present	Attendance of Students at Affairs Sponsored by --	Participation of -- in Selecting Co-op Students	Invitation of -- to Sponsor a Co-op Contest	Participation of Curricular Life	Help of Co-op Students in School Project	Contributions About Co-op in School Newspaper	Representation of Co-op in School Yearbook	Presentation of a Co-op Assembly Program	Arrange for -- to Serve on Co-op Advisory Committee	Display of Co-op Publicity Scrapbooks	Bulletin Board Displays in the School	Announcements About Co-op in School and District-wide Bulletins
School administrators, board of education members	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community organizations, such as Lions, Vets, PTA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Department heads in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Businesspersons in community	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Local gov't agencies, such as VA, employment bureau	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guidance personnel and teachers in the school	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Consumers, homemakers, consumer organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Labor organizations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Legislators	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Business organizations, such as BBB, C of C	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newspaper, radio, and television personnel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Parents and guardians	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Students -- present, past, and potential	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Miscellaneous groups, such as religious organizations, libraries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

FIG. 13-2 (Continued)

Newspapers will provide the vehicle for telling the story much more often than the other public information media. One experienced businessperson suggests six points to keep in mind to make the most of using newspapers for publicity purposes.[1] These are:

1. Become acquainted with the editor or whoever handles the material submitted.
2. Submit only ***timely*** information. Something that happened a few weeks ago cannot be considered news.
3. Always emphasize the significant and unique aspects of the event or the person involved.
4. Learn and then conscientiously observe newspaper deadlines.
5. Be brief in writing a news story. The reader's time, as well as newspaper space, is valuable.
6. Don't editorialize. The editorial page expresses the editor's personal opinion. News stories consist only of news.

Pictures increase interest and readership considerably. Whether a coordinator takes the pictures or arranges for the pictures with a studio or the newspaper staff, glossy prints should always be used. Student reporters, in many cases, will have full responsibility for working with the school newspaper staff. The principal, faculty advisor, and student editors should be consulted in maintaining contact with the important school public through the school newspaper.

Public relations represent a two-way street. In order to achieve continuing effective public relations with other groups and individuals, coordinators must express interest in and appreciation of their activities. Representatives of other organizations should be given opportunities to appear in the classroom and at student organization functions. These representatives include administrators and counselors, as well as persons outside the school. Besides contributing to total public relations effectiveness, such activities will provide students with a better understanding of their community and the people and organizations that make it a worthwhile place in which to live and work.

PLANNING AN EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE APPRECIATION EVENT

Plans for an employer-employee appreciation activity to be given near the end of the school year need to be made early in the new calendar year. A theme must be selected, major elements of the plan decided, the budget determined, and the physical facilities arranged. Student-learners should be involved in the planning from the start to capitalize on desirable educational opportunities—it is *their* event. The activity is a sound public relations device, but all activities and committee assignments should be student-oriented. Some communities prefer a large banquet including participants from all the cooperative plans in the school district. Other schools prefer a separate employer-employee event for each school and each occupational plan, to preserve the intimate relationship of a homogeneous business group. In some communities, the students finance the employer-employee appreciation activity with funds raised through student organization activities, from dues, or by the purchase of guest tickets out of their current earnings. An **employer-employee appreciation event** is a fine opportunity for students to say thanks to their job supervisors and employers. In other communities, the employers, a trade association, or a business association underwrites the cost of the activity. The students will benefit more if they arrive at the means of financing the event themselves.

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[1] *Public Relations: What's It All About?* by William E. Ramsey, Director of Public Relations, Boys Town, Nebraska, is an excellent reference.

Traditionally, the employer-employee appreciation activity was a banquet. But, many schools today in addition to, or in lieu of, employer-employee appreciation banquets, plan other social affairs and recognition events. As examples, some schools hold a recognition assembly for all cooperative plans in the school auditorium during May. In addition to appreciation speeches, skits, and other forms of entertainment, cooperative student-learners are presented, by the superintendent, with achievement certificates that record the training completed. Other schools plan afternoon teas or luncheons or breakfast meetings to honor employers or to bring parents and employers together. The point is to plan an activity that will get the largest number of employers together to relate to each other and to the trainees.

ORGANIZING ALUMNI GROUPS

In several cooperative plans across the nation, **alumni groups** reach graduates of 20 years ago or more. Some states have celebrated silver anniversaries of the establishment of cooperative education and have used these opportunities for publicity. The organization of an alumni group is very revealing to the teacher-coordinator, who for the first time will see the importance of the cooperative plan being career-oriented. Those students who entered and participated in a plan with career objectives in mind will be those who now form the nucleus for alumni chapters.

Attendance at an organizational meeting for an alumni chapter may be small, but enthusiastic work by a corps of dedicated graduates, coupled with the publication of an alumni newsletter, will locate many others who are eager to participate. Projects considered by alumni groups might include: activities to promote cooperative education in the local community, professional improvement through sponsoring adult training and development courses, service on or assistance to the local advisory committee, assistance to local or state foundations, and research projects. In fact, alumni groups can furnish the enrollment for certain adult training and development classes.

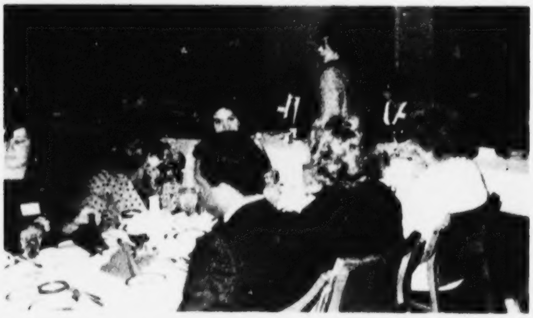
Questions and Activities

1. How do the activities of coordinators of on-going plans differ from those of coordinators preparing for new plans?
2. Explain why an effective public relations program is a *continuing* program of activities.
3. What contacts in the school and in the community are important for coordinators in continuing public relations programs? Illustrate by preparing a list of publics that must be informed.
4. How might a coordinator proceed to organize a local alumni chapter?
5. As the result of studying appropriate sources of information, discuss some informal research projects that could be carried on by the coordinator and/or students and/or members of the advisory committee.
6. Assume you are the direct administrator for a curriculum using the cooperative plan of instruction. The use of the plan is new in your institution. What goals would you describe as minimal after the first year of operation? After three years? After five years?
7. Describe a case that used the cooperative plan of instruction. For this case make a list of the criteria needed for selection of the advisory committee. Then, prepare (1) agendas for the meetings for the year and (2) a list of activities in which you would recommend the advisory committee be engaged.
8. Using the problem in number 7, list the local agencies that could provide supportive services to your student-learners. Also discuss the services that the SES can provide to your group and discuss the relationships that might exist with local union organizations.
9. Visit an on-going institutional program that uses the work environment as a plan of instruction. Write in a role-playing situation—a descriptive report of the program that you would send to the administration.
10. For a given situation, which is preferred: a large employer-employee appreciation banquet, which is professionally done and covers all occupational curricula, or an intimate occasion, which is planned and operated by students for their own specialized occupational group? Explain your reasoning.
11. Assume the situation in number 7. Make up a plan for an informational program that communicates to all publics the essence of what is going on and what needs to be done as improvements.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

14

Student Organizations as an Integral Part of Instruction



An important event near the end of the school year is the employer-employee appreciation dinner.

KEY CONCEPT: *Student organizations are an essential component of the cooperative plan.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Explain how national vocational student organizations operate.
- Identify the general objectives that are common to all vocational student organizations.
- Understand how to integrate vocational student organization activities into the instructional program.
- Understand how to operate and manage a successful vocational student organization.
- Evaluate the program of student activities.

KEY TERMS

AIASA
BPA
chapter work/activities
competitive events/activities
DECA
FBLA
FFA
FHA
HOSA
VICA
vocational student organizations

Philosophically, **vocational student organizations** are co-curricular—an integral part of the instructional program. The activities of student organizations have long been recognized as being viable and directly related to the goals of the instructional program. But, student membership in vocational student organizations represents only a small percentage of the total number of students enrolled in the vocational instructional programs. Why are there many students who are enrolled in vocational programs but who are not members of the appropriate vocational student organization? The reasons are probably numerous. But, surely among them would include: (1) no one has encouraged students to participate; (2) local chapters are not available for students to join; (3) students believe they cannot afford membership.

The U.S. Department of Education, the American Vocational Association, and Congress, in the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, each has recognized vocational student organizations as being an essential and integral part of the instructional program. Each has provided some leadership in promoting the development of vocational student organizations. In 1983, the Secretary of Education, Terrel H. Bell, issued an official policy statement formally reaffirming the Department of Education's commitment to vocational student organization activities as an integral part of vocational education and recognizing that student organizations in vocational education provide opportunities for vocational students not otherwise available to them. Active membership teaches human relations and leadership skills.

A number of student organizations are connected with vocational education, occupational exploration, and practical arts. These organizations serve students learning under the cooperative plan, as well as those learning in other vocational classes. Teacher-coordinators need to understand the various organizations in the educational system. These organizations include the following:

American Industrial Arts Student Association (AIASA)—oriented to an introduction of students to trade and industrial occupations.

Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA)—oriented to occupations in marketing and management.

Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA)—oriented to business occupations and general business principles.

Future Farmers of America (FFA)—oriented to occupations in and related to agriculture.

Future Homemakers of America, Inc. (FHA)—oriented to homemaking and to occupations related to home economics.

Health Occupations Students of America (HOSA)—oriented to occupations in and related to health.

Business Professionals of America (BPA)—oriented to business and office occupations.

Vocational Industrial Clubs of America (VICA)—oriented to occupations in and related to trade and industry.

In some communities there are student organizations that are not affiliated with national organizations but that serve students in the cooperative plans. For example, marketing education students in some schools may belong to a retailing organization. Or, at the local school level, an organization of this type may include all cooperative students regardless of their occupational areas. Usually the local cooperative education organization has the right to affiliate with a national student organization, such as BPA or VICA, while retaining its state cooperative organization affiliation. The state cooperative organization typically has divisions for each of the major occupational areas. Therefore, a plan of activities is usually organized for these specialized occupational areas. Often an annual state association convention or student leadership conference is held with a general program for all members and some divisional meetings catering to areas of occupational interest. It appears, however, that state-wide cooperative education organizations are on the way out as each vocational student organization within a given state becomes large enough to support its own meetings.

How National Vocational Student Organizations Operate[1]

The student organizations in vocational education have several characteristics in common. First, they are found in the nation's secondary and postsecondary schools. Second, each student organization would not exist except for the school's related vocational program. Third, students currently enrolled in the instructional program and graduates (alumni) make up the student organization membership. And fourth, the instructor of the school's program generally serves as the chapter advisor.

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[1] Source for all vocational student organization emblems, except the AIASA, the FHA–HERO, and the BPA emblems, was the *American Vocational Journal* cover, September 1971. The AIASA logo is reproduced with the permission of the American Industrial Arts Student Association, the FHA–HERO logo is reproduced with the permission of the Future Homemakers of America, Inc., and the BPA logo is reproduced with the permission of the Business Professionals of America. See also Dieter Tannenberg, "Vocational Student Organizations Make a Difference," *VocEd*, Vol. 59, No. 7, October 1984, pp. 45–47, for a corporate officer's view of the importance of vocational student organizations.

AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL ARTS STUDENT ASSOCIATION (AIASA)

AIASA, founded in 1978, is the national organization of elementary, junior high, and senior high school students who are currently enrolled in or who have completed industrial arts courses. It is the only vocational student organization to include elementary as well as junior and senior high school students. State vocational association education offices can provide current information on AIASA.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION CLUBS OF AMERICA (DECA)

DECA is the national organization of students who are enrolled in marketing education courses. DECA chapters in secondary and post-secondary levels enroll students who are preparing for full-time occupations in marketing. While DECA membership consists primarily of secondary and post-secondary students, the national organization provides for five-member categories: high school, community–junior college (Delta Chi Epsilon), college, alumni, and professional (for people in marketing occupations and marketing teacher education).

DECA is organized as a private non-profit corporation. It receives its financial support from membership dues, business contributions, and gifts, largely through the DECA Foundation. The national organization is composed of the various state associations, which, in turn, are made up of local chapters. For most students, the local chapter activities have the most meaning because only a small percentage of the members ever participate in state, regional, or national conferences. Opportunities for membership participation exist through career-oriented competitive events on the state and national levels. In addition, the Merit Award Program measures individual accomplishment against an established standard. Opportunities for leadership exist in committee responsibilities for local chapter activities and in the elected chapter, regional, state, and national offices.

FUTURE BUSINESS LEADERS OF AMERICA (FBLA)

FBLA is the national organization of students enrolled in secondary business courses. Students need not be in a vocational education program to belong.

FBLA contains three divisions—secondary, post-secondary, and alumni. The post-secondary division, Phi Beta Lambda (PBL), is made up of business students in community–junior colleges and universities. The alumni division is formed from both groups. Local chapter of the FBLA in secondary schools and the PBL in post-secondary schools make up the state chapters. The national organization grants charters under which state and local chapters operate. Each chapter adopts programs within the framework of the national organization.

Local FBLA–PBL chapters usually cover all business occupations, or they may be composed of special student interest groups studying particular business and office occupations such as accounting, data or word processing, or office management. Each chapter has officers, working committees, and one or more advisors. Local projects include those that enhance chapter members' vocational understanding, such as conducting career conferences and business field trips, providing office and clerical help to other school organizations, and operating a student employment service. Some chapters provide tutors for inner-city children, companionship for sick and aged individuals, and financial assistance to economically disadvantaged individuals.

State chapters of FBLA–PBL made up of local chapters—are functioning in most states, with all these chapters conducting annual state leadership conferences.

Each year the national organization provides national fall leadership conferences in five geographic regions of the United States. *Getting Involved* is a FBLA–PBL on-going national project, intended to assist students in learning about the free enterprise system by studying entrepreneurship, technology, and productivity.

At each level—local, state, and national—there are contest events, projects, achievement degrees, and elected offices that provide students with opportunities to participate.

FUTURE FARMERS OF AMERICA (FFA)[2]

FFA is the national organization of students in vocational agriculture programs. The oldest of the vocational student organizations, the FFA was launched in 1928 at Kansas City, Missouri. Members elect their own officers who lead the local, state, and national organizations under adult guidance. Advancement within the FFA occurs through earned achievement degrees.

Over the past 50 years, few occupations have changed more radically than agriculture. Fewer people have engaged in production farming, while many more have turned to off-farm occupations in agricultural businesses. These occupations, known as agribusinesses, provide farmers with the supplies and services needed to grow and market their products. Concern for the environment has opened up career opportunities in horticulture, forestry, and conservation. The FFA still has an interest in production farming, but it has made changes to maintain student activities as a part of the instructional program related to agribusiness. These changes include : (1) providing recognition for proficiency in agribusiness; (2) conducting a nation-wide program of community development and environmental improvement; (3) modernizing the awards system; and (4) providing recognition for urban as well as rural students and female as well as male students.

FUTURE HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA, INC. (FHA)

Future Homemakers of America, Inc. **(FHA)**, is a national vocational student organization whose goal is to help youth assume active roles in society as wage earners, community leaders, and family members. Its members are junior and senior high school students enrolled in home economics education. The FHA functions as an integral part of the home economics curriculum in that it encourages members to extend classroom learning by planning and conducting projects that impact on family, school, and community.

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[2] See Ralph E. Bender, Robert E. Taylor, Chester K. Hansen, and L. H. Newcomb. *The FFA and You* Third Edition. Danville, Illinois. The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1979.

The FHA helps members develop their leadership potential through program offerings that guide them to turn contemporary issues into teen-directed projects. Teen pregnancy, family relationships, needs of individuals who are elderly and of those who are disabled, substance abuse, and career preparation are examples of these current concerns tackled by members. The organization sponsors STAR events, activities that enable members to demonstrate proficiency and achievement in chapter projects, leadership skills, and occupational preparation. STAR stands for **S**tudents **T**aking **A**ction with **R**ecognition. Also, the FHA sponsors national projects based on peer education—teens teaching teens—in the areas of family health and fitness and nutrition.

The FHA has two kinds of chapters: FHA chapters for consumer education, homemaking, and family life education. FHA–HERO chapters for students preparing for careers in home economics related occupations.

HEALTH OCCUPATION STUDENTS OF AMERICA (HOSA)

HOSA incorporated in 1976, is the national organization of secondary and post-secondary students who are enrolled in health occupations education. HOSA is a relatively small student organization compared to the FFA and the FHA, but it is unique. It is the only student organization exclusively serving health occupation students. On its tenth anniversary in 1986, its membershiip had climbed to 33,000 in 33-member states. HOSA offers parliamentary procedures, public speaking, interviewing, writing, and medical technology events at its annual conferences. State vocational association education offices can provide current information on the latest developments in HOSA.

BUSINESS PROFESSIONALS OF AMERICA (BPA)

Founded in 1966, the Office Education Association (OEA) became known as **BPA** in 1988. Unlike the FBLA, the BPA is the national organization intended for only those secondary and post-secondary students enrolled in vocational business and office education. BPA consists of secondary, post-secondary, and collegiate divisions. In addition, alumni members may join any of the three divisions. Its aims are to develop the leadership abilities of its members, to promote interest in this nation's business system, and to encourage competency in business and office occupations.

The **competitive events/activities** program at state, regional, and national conferences is designed to give vocational business and office education students the opportunity to demonstrate occupational competencies, which include job skills, knowledges, and attitudes, in addition to the leadership and human relations skills needed for success in business and office occupations.

There are three types of competitive events. These are:

1. ***Occupational competitive events.***—These require students to demonstrate the skills, knowledges, and attitudes needed to gain and maintain employment in a specific business occupational area. These competitive events are occupationally oriented, and students must complete various tasks presented to them as in-basket items. Occupational competitive events are grouped into three main areas: (a) administrative support system, (b) information services, and (c) supervision and management.
2. ***Specialized competitive events.***—These require students to demonstrate the skills, knowledges, and attitudes in leadership and other specialized skill areas related to business and office careers. Examples of these areas are employment skills, legal applications, banking applications, and computerized accounting.

3. *General competitive events.*—These require students to demonstrate general knowledge related to business and office careers, such as business law, business math, and economic awareness.

VOCATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CLUBS OF AMERICA (VICA)

VICA was organized in 1965 as a non-profit national vocational organization for secondary and post-secondary students enrolled in trade and industrial occupation programs. Members in secondary preparatory and cooperative industrial programs have their own division and activities within VICA. Post-secondary students form another division. Each division operates on the local, state, and national levels.

In 1986, VICA developed a new mission statement. Today "VICA is an active partnership among people who are involved in the education, training and employment of vocational–technical students to influence the quality and relevance of vocational education."[3]

VICA emphasizes respect for the dignity of work and high standards in trade ethics, work quality, scholarship, and safety. Also emphasized is respect for the democratic process through the practice of democracy in the group. Competitive activities in 38 occupational and leadership skill areas include air conditioning and refrigeration, automotive technology, cosmetology, and electronics trouble shooting. Members can participate in an individual achievement program and receive recognition for skill and personal accomplishments. State leadership conferences are held yearly; delegates are chosen to attend the national leadership conference (U.S. Skill Olympics).

Objectives of Vocational Student Organizations

Vocational student organizations can provide members with general learning experiences as well as those that are directly career-related. While each organization has its specific objectives, there are general objectives common to all vocational student organizations.

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[3] Dieter Tannenberg, "Vocational Student Organizations Make a Difference," *VocEd*, Vol. 59, No. 7, October 1984, p. 45.

WHO BENEFITS FROM THE STUDENT ORGANIZATION?

Those persons who work successfully with vocational student organizations believe strongly that everyone who comes in contact with them can benefit.

The students, regardless of age:[4]

1. Gain an opportunity to identify with and be included as part of a peer group.
2. Learn more about the occupational opportunities in the areas for which they are preparing, through activities such as inviting resource persons to speak at chapter meetings, taking field trips, and cooperating in special projects.

Student organizations allow student-learners the opportunity to develop leadership skills. DECA members in this photo are campaigning for national office at the National Leadership Conference

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[4] The emphasis in this chapter is primarily on secondary students. At the post-secondary level, the students may be adults in their forties or older. They too like to "belong."

3. Learn to plan, organize, conduct, and evaluate chapter activities under the guidance of the teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor.
4. Develop goals and work toward them within a peer-centered environment.
5. Begin to understand the requirements and responsibilities of "leadership" and "followership"—to "lead" in some activities and to "follow" in others.
6. Develop the social skills of cooperation, dependability, sense of humor, and others needed in an occupation.
7. Acquire prestige by participating in an organization that is occupationally oriented and recognized at the state and national levels.
8. Participate in a group that is recognized by employers and other community leaders as part of an educational program of occupational preparation.

The teacher-coordinator:

1. Can become more familiar with the student-learners within the peer-centered setting in which the teacher may be more informal.
2. Can enhance the formal instructional program with additional resources: (a) chapter meetings, field trips, and demonstrations; (b) area or district conferences; and (c) state, regional, and national conferences.
3. Can encourage individual student motivation and maturation through competition with others and often more importantly with the student's own past performance.
4. Can direct opportunities for additional responsibilities toward those members who have demonstrated their interest and abilities.
5. Can become better acquainted with the school and the community through organization activities.
6. Has the opportunity to provide information concerning the vocational program group and the educational program to the school and to community support groups.
7. Can develop a method of identifying potential enrollees by acquainting students with the activities of the student organization and perhaps inviting them to a meeting.
8. Has the opportunity to follow up graduates by organizing an alumni group.

The school:

1. When describing the activities of the student organization, can inform the public about the school and specific educational programs.

2. Has the opportunity to obtain greater community interest in school activities and to gain support for increased mileage through "visibility" of the programs.

The members of the community:

1. Have the opportunity to become more informed about what the institution is accomplishing.
2. Have the prestige of taking part in school activities, such as sponsoring a field trip or a conference or being speakers.
3. Can see the school in action and can better understand how tax dollars are being spent.
4. Can be proud to say "We helped."

The parents:

1. Can understand what the vocational program is doing for their children, their grandchildren, or their neighbors' children.
2. Have the prestige of knowing that their children are participating in a bona-fide program of school-recognized activities.
3. Can acquire firsthand experience in school activities by serving as sponsors to one or more student organization activities.
4. Can develop a deeper awareness of the general objectives of the school through acquaintance with and participation in the plan of activities.

Student organizations permit student-learners to benefit from their contacts with businesspersons in their community

The Dynamics of Learning Through Vocational Student Organizations

Many avenues exist for student learning and personal development through student organization activities. A well-balanced program of activities supplementing the formal instruction through a variety of experiences, whether at the secondary or post-secondary level, has been found desirable in cooperative education. Teacher-coordinators agree that those activities requiring member participation, member direction, and member evaluation can have learning outcomes relevant to the students' occupational endeavors. Teacher-coordinators can fulfill their role as chapter advisors by ***guiding*** the progress of the student group instead of ***directing*** it, as they often might do in a formalized class.

PARTICIPATION

What are some of the activities that call for participation? For example, inviting school and community resource persons to the chapter to speak on topics of current class study might include planning by a number of students. Selecting, ordering, and previewing films, filmstrips, and tapes might be the responsibility of another committee, while maintaining departmental displays might be the duty of another group. Planning field trips to the business community, presenting a PTA program, and offering specialized services to other school and community organizations would call for special committees. For example, a cooperative business and office organization could provide a typing and duplicating service to the student council, or a marketing education chapter could offer its services as a sales and marketing consultant to those groups planning to raise funds.

For leadership development, elected officers, such as president and vice-president (who is also often the program chairperson), secretary, and treasurer, have many responsibilities that encourage personal growth. Committee chairpersons can provide other students with opportunities to develop leadership abilities.

For increased occupational understandings, participation activities may be presented effectively within the student-centered framework of the student organization. For example, a VICA chapter might cooperate with local industry to survey needs and requirements for employment in the community's trade and industrial occupations. Or, a marketing education chapter, in cooperation with the chamber of commerce or retail merchants association, could participate in marketing products, such as Back-to-School Week, ME Days, or downtown improvement plans.

CASE-IN-POINT

Each vocational student organization has established a goal of training future leaders in business, agriculture, and industry. Each of these programs has produced many success stories. Probably some of the more gratifying successes come from students who, economically disadvantaged as youth, became influential leaders, with the help of a vocational student organization.

One such case is Harold House, once a shy, economically disadvantaged boy from a small town in Indiana. Harold was one of several children born to parents who earned a meager living on a small farm. Recognizing Harold's potential, Jack Stark, a local ME teacher-coordinator, took Harold under his wing. Harold soon became the local chapter president of DECA and district vice-president the following year. With the help of some local business persons, Harold was given the opportunity to attend a nearby college. While there, he ran for student body president and was state president of collegiate DECA. Harold was later elected the mayor of a small town in Ohio and was named as 1 of the 10 Outstanding Young Americans by the United States Jaycees in 1987. Today Harold is a vocational teacher and VICA advisor in Clinton, Indiana.

Another example is Kermit Boston, who was raised in a black area of Philadelphia. He attended the same elementary school as Bill Cosby and Ed Bradley. Once in high school he became involved in a vocational student organization at his school. He was elected president of his chapter and later the city-wide president for Philadelphia. Kermit graduated from a state teacher's college and became an elementary school teacher and principal. Wanting to try something new, he switched careers and became a textbook salesman for a major publisher. Today Kermit is Vice President of Sales in this company.

Harold House is congratulated by his former teacher-coordinator, Jack Stark, for being awarded Indiana DECA's Outstanding Alumni Award.

In general, those participation activities that most effectively support the real purpose of the educational program tend to have the greatest meaning for the individual. For example, the time spent in preparing an office procedures manual as a vocational business and office education student organization project would help supplement the career objectives of most chapter members to a greater degree than would the same amount of time spent on a speed-typing contest. The Degree Plan and the Merit Award Program utilized by some of the national organizations illustrate one form of accomplishment through participation. Here, each member—by completing a series of vocationally significant tasks—earns honors.

COMPETITION

While some educators have the firm conviction that competition is not healthy, most believe that inherent in competitive activities, in which individuals compete against their own level of ability, is the development of leadership and technical knowledge. While a certain amount of competition with others may be beneficial, competitive activities should be based—as should other educational matters—on the needs of individuals. Some individuals may need competitive activities to motivate them to meet the demands of the work world. If such is the case, occupationally oriented contests are meaningful. The student organization provides the best environment for students to match themselves against others and to seek reward for outstanding achievement. The reward is especially important for those who, having been told they are failures, believe that they are.

New dimensions in education have taken shape through the recognition that interpersonal relationships are vital in the teaching/learning process. Typically today, educators possess a better understanding of the emotional growth of individuals and each person's need for increased constructive relationships with others. Objectives have been widened to foster personal security, to expand assertiveness, and to assume self-direction. Among the new dimensions are many theories about what is the basis of motivation for learning and how this motivation can best be acquired by the student. Learning because one anticipates reward is preferable to learning because one fears punishment. The organization contests and awards are considered measures of success.

It is probably accurate to say that everyone would like to take "first place" or "be first" in a contest. But, inherent in any contest is the simple fact that only one person takes "first place" or "is first." Teachers have the difficult task of assisting students in developing the ability to compete and the ability to accept defeat—both extremely important competencies in our society. Being able to accept defeats as well as victories and having the ability to convert "losings" to "winnings" are necessary skills for future job successes.

COOPERATION

Much leadership develops in student organizations as well as in the one-to-one student-teacher situation. A teacher whose focus is on helping students integrate cognitive knowledges, skills, and affective attitudes views the group as a laboratory. This laboratory needs control and stimulation—control, lest the group wander off, losing time in unproductive byways, and stimulation to bring in new ideas or different ways of viewing known ideas.

Over and above these, however, is the example set by teacher-coordinators in handling group interrelationships. If a teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor listens to a committee report, even though the ideas presented might be too unrealistic or time-consuming for the chapter to undertake, the example of listening encourages the organization members to listen to one another. It may happen in a group in which those matters that are most immediate, controversial, or exciting becloud the intended purpose of learning. A contest may stir up excitement out of proportion to its worth. Such excitement or preoccupation may easily be mistaken for genuine interest or actual accomplishment by both the students and the teacher. The event may be of value to but a few and beyond the realization of others. It may be seen by still others as an escape from real engagement in learning. Thus, unwittingly, the development of the individual student-learners becomes subordinate to the "fanfare." The competitive activity should be recognized as of little consequence unless it results in learning. If not, it is distinctly a side show to the main tent.

It is the teacher, as well as the individual students, who determines whether a student shifts from being other-directed to inner-directed. Students learn through identification with the teacher. If the students and the teacher have mutual respect, some students may adopt many of the teacher's ideas, values, and attitudes. If the teacher is really interested in the student's development, most students will be aware of this, for most are able to distinguish hollow incentives and temporary aims from the main goal, which is occupational mastery and a continuing desire for learning.

As one student, Billy, said, "Those of us enrolled in cooperative marketing education find that the program has three parts: (1) the classroom, where we receive group and individual instruction geared to our career goals in marketing, (2) the job or training station, where we gain actual supervised experience and practice in an occupation that interests us; and (3) the organization, where we learn more about opportunities in vocations and where we can enjoy meeting with other vocational education students." Billy, the state president of a high school organization, understood the basic components of a successful cooperative education plan and the interrelationship of these components. He had discovered that the formal classroom instruction was organized by the teacher-coordinator. He had learned that at the training station new learning experiences as well as continuing duties and responsibilities were presented and supervised by the training station sponsor. He understood also that successful student organization activities were organized by the members of the local chapter, with guidance from the chapter advisor. As the year progressed, Billy came to realize that the organization's members became leaders in some activities and followers in others, and by the end of the year, he had learned how to build a cohesive team spirit among his peers. When the year was over, Billy also had discovered that some of his peers believed the classroom instruction had been the most useful to them, others felt they had attained their greatest achievements at their training stations, while still others thought they had realized their greatest successes through the student organization program. The leadership role that Billy worked to achieve in the group and the results he was able to accomplish provided personal growth, which is difficult for many of his age to have obtained. These would be of value in his personal life as well as in his work situation.

Keys to Successful Operation of a Vocational Student Organization

There are several keys to operating a vocational student organization successfully. These are methods that knowledgeable advisors have found useful in organizing chapters, correlating student organization activities with instruction, guiding the chapters throughout the year, understanding legal responsibilities, and evaluating the activity programs.

ORGANIZING THE CHAPTER

Because the responsibility of introducing the idea of the vocational student organization rests with the teacher-coordinator each year, the following procedures may be helpful.

1. Near the beginning of the year, introduce the idea to the related class. Describe the organization program on all levels—local, state, and national. Use examples of past student organization activities—newspaper articles, magazines, conference programs, brochures, and emblems. Invite some past officers or some other alumni to this meeting.
2. Discuss with the class the values of the organization. New chapters might visit an established chapter in a nearby school.
3. Suggest that a student committee be formed to review the matter further and to obtain the views of all concerned. Later, the committee can report its findings, and the entire class can vote on the findings. (Many coordinators require membership since vocational student organization activities are considered a part of the instructional program.)
4. If the vote is affirmative, the group elects a temporary chairperson, who appoints a nominating committee. The responsibility of the nominating committee is to provide candidates for the offices of president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and others.
5. After the election of permanent officers, the president appoints those committees determined necessary, in consultation with the executive

committee and the teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor. These committees might include occupational development, financial or fund-raising, civic, service, public relations, and social. The new chapter will need a committee to develop a constitution and by-laws that meet the chapter's objectives. The president should also request the chapter advisor to determine the proper procedures for affiliation with the state and national organizations.

6. Encourage each member to serve on at least one committee. It is important that no one chapter member be asked to give a disproportionate amount of time to the organization by serving on too many committees. The committees confer with the executive committee and the teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor to plan suggested activities for the year, as these activities would relate to the content of the instructional program.
7. Each committee then reports to the chapter, presenting its plan for the quarter, semester, or year. The executive committee—with the advisor—can take on the responsibility of synthesizing all committee activities and suggesting a general plan for the year. This plan would need to be flexible and changeable to provide for special occasions and emergencies.
8. As chapter advisor, periodically review with the officers and committee heads the responsibilities they have undertaken, their progress, and their plans.
9. Evaluate the progress of the chapter on a continuing, student-directed basis, emphasizing the constructive suggestions of the group. Some questions for evaluation purposes are given at the end of this chapter.

In guiding the vocational student organization, the chapter advisor must make sure that the activities are related to the objectives of the total program. Also, it is the advisor's responsibility to be certain that the initial projects and activities attempted are successful in the eyes of the members. In this way a foundation of enthusiasm is established, enabling the group to reach the more complex objectives as the year goes on.

Naturally, the teacher-coordinator ascertains that student organization activities are within school policy and have school authorization. Before undertaking a chapter activity, the advisor clears it with the principal or with a designated school administrator. Some matters that usually need local approval include: (1) procedure for establishing the time, place, and content of chapter meetings; (2) amount of local chapter dues; (3) number and kinds of fund-raising activities; and (4) participation in conferences and meetings away from school. Keeping the school administration informed about chapter activities helps the advisor to be certain the chapter is following school policy and can also build goodwill in the school for the student organization.

To conduct a meaningful program of student organization activities, the teacher-coordinator and the student members must make a time commitment. Chapters are expected to use class time for meetings that provide meaningful learning experiences. Some chapters within the same school district meet together once in a while to accomplish more than each chapter could do alone. Perhaps the most frequent example of such cooperation is the parent or employer-employee appreciation banquet; another example may be a social event such as a dance or a hay ride.

CORRELATING STUDENT ORGANIZATION ACTIVITIES WITH THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

If the vocational student organization is truly to be an integral part of the vocational program, its activities need planning, just as all instruction is planned. Ideas for chapter activities can be noted when the major learning outcomes and areas of study are prepared for the year. Some teacher-coordinators find a course content and chapter activity chart useful in providing student committees with suggestions for chapter activities. When general content areas are listed along one side and types of activities across the top of the chart, both the teacher-coordinator and the students can perceive relationships between instructional content and activities (see Figure 14-1).

A course content and chapter activity chart can facilitate the work of each student committee as it plans chapter activities. When students plan the program, the instructional program takes on more meaning for them. In planning the program activities, the chapter advisor and members will want to keep in mind these questions: (1) What would be a suitable, well-balanced plan of chapter activities for the school year? (What is meaningful to us—what makes sense?) (2) What projects can we get done as a group? (3) What projects might individual members wish to assume? (4) How much can we get done (are we realistic about time and money)?

GUIDING THE CHAPTER THROUGH THE YEAR

Organizing the year's activity program is a major effort, but other important matters also arise as the year progresses. Among the first is the question of when chapter meetings should be held. Another question is how chapter activities should be financed, and a third, what the major thrusts of state regionals, over-all state, and national conferences should be.

COURSE CONTENT AND CHAPTER ACTIVITY CHART

General Content Areas	Types of Activities (Questions)	Business and Professional	Financial	Civic	Service	Public Relations and Social
School, business, and community relationships	As chapter members, what are your responsibilities to your training stations and your community?	1. [illegible] a. b. c. 2. [illegible] a. Employment of patrons and banquets b. [illegible] of convention receptions 3. Projects: a. Demonstration, [illegible] b. Survey of [illegible] utilization [illegible] c. 4. Other a. b.	1. What group activities during the school year will require funds? a. Local activities b. Area, state, and national affiliations 2. Will fund-raising activities be needed to meet organization expenses?	1. Study various civic groups and their objectives. How do these groups relate to vocational student organizations? 2. Have group representatives attend local business and civic organization meetings. 3. 4.	1. Identify some of the existing approved service organizations: a. In school b. In the community c. Nation-wide 2. Are there any organizations established by businesses? 3.	1. Invite adult guests, advisory committee members, school administrators, parents to attend a "get-acquainted party." 2. Recognize outstanding training stations and/or sponsors. 3. Conduct [illegible] through Vocational Education Week. 4. 5.

FIG. 14-1

COURSE CONTENT AND CHAPTER ACTIVITY CHART (Continued)

General Content Areas	Types of Activities (Questions)	Business and Professional	Financial	Civic	Service	Public Relati and Social
Business organization and operation	All businesses are not organized alike. What are the advantages of its organizational structure for your training station?	1. Creative projects a. Organize a clinic in which businesspersons discuss the management, control, operation, personnel, and marketing of their types of businesses. b. c. 2. Displays a. Posters and displays of types of business organizations b. 3. Speakers a. Representatives of various divisions b. 4. Films a. b. 5. Other a. b.	1. How is the chapter fund-raising activity to be organized? 2. Who has responsibility for: a. Management b. Purchasing c. Receiving and marking d. Sales and promotion e. Accounting and control 3.	1. How are local civic groups organized? 2. 3.	1. Organize and conduct activity for a service organization of your choice. 2. 3.	1. Invite loc civic and business leaders to area, stat or nationa conference 2. Organize a hold an employer-employee a tivity, su as a banqu or luncheo 3. 4. 5. 6.

FIG. 14-1 (Continued)

Providing for chapter meetings.—The time and place for chapter meetings should be selected to fit into the student's schedules and the school's administrative policies for all organization meetings. Few schools still set aside a portion of the regular school day for co-curricular activities. Some schools plan for organizational activities immediately following the normal schedule of classes, but bussing may negate this and employed students may not have the opportunity to participate. Because the activities are part of the instructional program, meetings are often held during a portion of the related class time.

Obviously, successful chapter meetings need advance planning by the student officers, in cooperation with the teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor. Some chapters find that a business meeting every two weeks, possibly in conjunction with a resource speaker, a planned film, or a short field trip, meets their needs. Other chapter meetings may occur outside school and most employment hours to allow for more extensive field trips, social events, and district (regional) or state meetings. Participation in district, state, and national student organization activities when possible enables chapter members to broaden their horizons through: (1) learning more about career opportunities in the fields of their interests, (2) gaining a more thorough understanding of the related educational program, (3) exchanging ideas with other students having similar career interests, and (4) learning to live with students from other cultural settings.

Financing chapter activities.—The activities that a chapter plans for the year determine the amount of funds needed. Basically, four ways are employed by local chapters, state groups, and national student organizations to raise necessary capital. They are: (1) dues, (2) savings plans, (3) fund-raising events, and (4) special assistance projects. The first method is used at all levels—local, state, and national; the second and third are more successfully utilized by local chapters; and the last method is used at the national level and by many state organizations.

1. ***Dues.***—Chapter dues, paid by each member, should provide for most of the operating expenses of the chapter. The amount of dues should be within the local school's policy for chapter dues and within the income the members are earning. A chapter might plan a field trip to another city or attendance at a state or national meeting in its program of activities. In this case, the members agree to establish dues sufficient to provide for the major cost of the trip before it takes place.
2. ***Savings plan.***—Since chapter members of most vocational student organizations are employed part time, a savings plan can be successful.

Under the plan, each member saves a predetermined portion of the weekly or monthly earnings for a special purpose. The use of savings plan funds may be for a field trip, a major social event, a conference or a meeting, or a gift to the school.

3. ***Fund-raising events.***—Special fund-raising events may be necessary from time to time. Funds for special vocational, civic, or service activities, such as state and national meetings, scholarships, or contributions to a special cause, usually cannot be met through membership dues. A chapter's fund-raising events may be a continuing service, such as holding a car wash regularly, maintaining a typing service for students and teachers, or operating a school store. Or, a chapter may sponsor one event or a series of single events, such as a fashion show, a candy sale, or a concession stand for athletic events.
4. ***Special assistance projects.***—Some chapters, but more often state and national organizations, request special assistance from interested groups, such as community organizations and industry employers. In certain instances, special assistance organizations have been established for this purpose. For example, the FFA and DECA foundations have as their respective goals the support of programs of student activities. On the national level, these organizations obtain financial assistance from business and charitable organizations interested in vocational education. Locally, active solicitation of donations of merchandise or money by students should be cautiously done, if at all. The potential ill-will such solicitations may create may be detrimental to both the chapter and the school. Naturally, any fund-raising event that depends on support from the community in general should have prior approval from the school's administrators responsible for such activities.

Financial activities that are thoughtfully planned can enhance the general content of the educational program. For instance, when a home economics class is studying family finance, a practical reinforcement would be for that class to assist the FHA–HERO chapter in planning its anticipated budget; or when a vocational business education group is practicing production methods, the chapter could produce and sell a student directory or a newsletter; or when a marketing education class is studying marketing practices, the chapter could conduct, as a fund-raising project, a survey of the potential consumer market for a fast-food franchise or a survey for the retail committee of the chamber of commerce.

In taking trips to state or national meetings, delegates are expected to pay for at least a portion of their own expenses. A successful pattern in many cases has been for one-third of the total expense to be supplied by each of the following: the delegates, the state organization and the national organization.

Participating in the state and national organizations.—The activities of the local chapter have the greatest meaning for the individual members when these activities are student-planned, student-directed, and student-centered. However, state and national meetings have other purposes: they are designed to inform the public of the goals of the student organization and the educational program and are organized to encourage adult interest and support. In fact, they are designed partly to be a "showcase" for the schools.

The annual regional, state, and national student meetings have great meaning for those members who can attend. But, effectively reported at home in newspapers and on TV, these meetings can raise the status of the program for those members who cannot participate. The organizations are so large in most states that attendance is limited to a percentage of the total membership—usually those members who are contest winners and/or chapter officers.

Typically, regional and state meetings follow the pattern set by the national organization. A national leadership conference usually consists of several types of events: (1) registration of all delegates; (2) student officer executive committee meetings; (3) a general opening session for all delegates and

A capstone of instruction for vocational programs is the annual student organization Leadership Conference Awards Ceremony.

advisors; (4) various competitive events, ranging from those requiring a beginning level of occupational competency to those demanding a high degree of competency; (5) general sessions featuring leaders from business, education, and/or government; (6) discussion groups, workshops, and project sessions of educational and occupational interest; and (7) nomination and election of officers. The climax of the state and national meetings is traditionally an awards banquet and program, where the competitive events trophies and other major awards are presented.

Advisors experienced in conference leadership procedures state that students gain a greater understanding and appreciation of the total organization when time is planned for conference orientation for all members, regardless of whether or not all are to attend the regional, state, or national meetings. In this way those who stay at home can take a greater interest in the post-conference reports of the delegates. For all conferees, daily or more frequent meetings or buzz sessions of the local delegation, led by the chief student delegate, can be meaningful for these reasons:

1. Conferees have an opportunity to review fully the goals of the meeting.
2. The delegation leader designates time for questions from the delegation members and for clarification of individual responsibilities.
3. Members can report to the delegation on the sessions attended, since the delegates all probably cannot attend each discussion or work group.
4. Conferees can discuss with other members of the delegation and with the advisor the new ideas that they gained for occupational and personal use, as well as salient conference information for post-conference reports to those at home.
5. The delegation members have an opportunity to evaluate the meeting in the light of the goals originally discussed.

With frequent conference buzz sessions, the advisor also maintains an up-to-date check on the morale of the delegation, the general health and well-being of each member, and the educational significance of the meeting.

UNDERSTANDING THE ADVISOR'S LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Legal liability for students away from campus for a chapter activity is the concern of every chapter advisor. Naturally, the chapter advisor cannot *assure* the safety of the advisees; nevertheless, the chapter advisor must take steps to limit the potential liability imposed by the law on the chapter advisor, the school district, school administrators, and even school board members. Chapter 16, "Legal Aspects of Cooperative Education," discusses in some depth the potential liability of teacher-coordinators, including advisors, and it gives some guidelines for limiting liability. One guideline, for example, for minimizing liability, and perhaps even avoiding personal liability, is to obtain written parental permission for each student. Under the law, the advisor assumes the responsibility of acting with reasonable professional care and taking positive steps to protect the students from injury. To minimize the likelihood of students being injured, the advisor should:

1. Plan the activity, giving attention to the safety and protection of the students.
2. In writing, fully advise the school, the students, and their parents of the organization's activities.
3. Supervise the students in every way consistent with the planned activity; anticipate the consequences of misjudgement by enthusiastic, energetic students.
4. Establish rules and regulations for the excursion and be sure that all students and their parents are aware of them and the penalties that will be imposed should any student violate any rule or regulation.
5. Acquaint students with the risks that might arise, especially in a large city, such as walking alone on a city street, being pickpocketed, being solicited for drugs, alcohol, sex.
6. Teach safety education along with program activities, and insist that all group members follow good safety practices not only when they are in the classroom but also when they are away from school for a chapter activity.
7. Instruct students to report any safety problems to you, the chapter advisor, and/or the proper authorities, and to refuse to use any defective material, equipment, or facilities.
8. In the event a student is injured, get competent medical aid at once. Depending on the seriousness of the situation, it is generally advisable to contact the student's parents or guardian once medical assistance has been obtained.

Evaluating the Program of Student Organization Activities

After defining the extent of interest among chapter members, determining the amount of time available for student organization activities, and obtaining suggestions from members for a meaningful activity program, chapter advisors evaluate the recommended student activities in relationship to their contribution to the total instructional program. In this connection the following questions should be considered.

1. Are the proposed activities student-centered; that is, are they based on the career needs of the students as identified in the instructional program?
2. Can the activities be organized and conducted by the members without the assistance of the chapter advisor?
3. Does the activity program present worthwhile learning experiences without exploiting the time or energy of the chapter members?
4. Is the available chapter time best spent on a specific suggested activity, or are there other projects of greater value to the chapter members?
5. Is the teacher-coordinator providing a commitment of time for adequate follow-up of the student program?
6. What recommendations could the teacher-coordinator as chapter advisor offer for improving suggested projects to give them more meaning?

Some of the questions to be considered in evaluating the vocational student organization might include the following:

1. Is the vocational student organization an integral part of the instructional program?
2. Are all enrollees in the instructional program included in the student organization?
3. Is there a written statement of objectives for the student organization?
4. Does the program of student activities meet these objectives?
5. Is the student organization peer-centered?
6. Is the program of student activities planned cooperatively on a long-range basis?
7. Does the program of student activities complement the instructional program?
8. Are there balance and variety in the activities?
9. Are all members, regardless of individual differences, provided with opportunities to plan for, take part in, and gain recognition for their participation in the student organization?
10. Are supportive guidance and adequate follow-up provided by the teacher-coordinator in the role as chapter advisor?

11. Is participation in the affiliated area (or district), state, and national vocational student organizations encouraged?
12. Is the program of student activities evaluated on a continuing basis by the members as well as by those adults concerned with the instructional program?

Questions and Activities

1. Describe each vocational student organization. For each, state the organization's full name, initials, and structure.
2. What are some of the major values students can acquire from membership in a vocational student organization? Are there any values to be gained by the school or school district from a program of student activities?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages for the teacher-coordinator in organizing a vocational student organization?
4. Who, other than the members, might benefit from the organization? In what ways?
5. Describe how you would go about encouraging the establishment of a local vocational student organization. What methods would you use to attain a program of chapter activities that would enrich learning for the greatest number of students?
6. List five steps chapter advisors can take to reduce the risk of liability when students are away from the school for a chapter activity.
7. In what ways can the vocational student organization be an integral part of the instructional program? Give examples of chapter activities that match specific learning outcomes.
8. In what ways does the role of the teacher-coordinator differ from that of the student organization advisor?
9. Assume you are the advisor of a local chapter. Given the related course content and the areas of organization work, construct a course content and chapter activity chart for a specific vocational student organization.
10. Assume you are the advisor of a local chapter. Write a lesson plan in which you introduce the topic of the student organization to the related class.
11. Make a list of sales projects or other ways a vocational student organization might use to raise funds to conduct its activities.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

15

Accountability Through Evaluation

Accountability in cooperative plans includes evidence of having produced graduates with employability, as shown by psychomotor skills, cognitive learnings, and the necessary affective skills, which are demonstrated here at a cashier's window.

KEY CONCEPT: *Accountability includes assessing results and then refining the structure and system of the local cooperative plan.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to

- Explain the differences between the three types of evaluation for the cooperative plan.
- Describe the evaluation mandated under the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984.
- Describe internal evaluation and third-party evaluation.
- Distinguish between process- and product-oriented evaluation.
- Describe the critical factor technique as a form of evaluation.
- Prepare an outline that includes the major components of a cooperative plan that should be included in a program review.

KEY TERMS

accrediting associations
cost-benefit studies
critical factor technique
engaged-time analysis
internal evaluation
learning-time analysis
mandatory evaluation
process-oriented evaluation
product-oriented evaluation
program review
third-party evaluation
time-on-task analysis
time-use analysis
value-added assessment

"***Accountability,***" "***evaluation,***" "***assessment,***" "***cost-benefits,***" "***cost-effectiveness,***" and "***time-on-task analysis***" are all popular and controversial concepts. To some people these terms suggest financial and business operations; for others they mean instruction and student learnings; and for still others they mean getting the job done. But, to most educators all these terms represent a new era for education—an era when being held accountable for results is demanded.

Fed by federal funds and foundation grants and nurtured by the vested interests of various groups, private learning corporations, concerned taxpayers, alarmed administrators, and school board members, the concept of accountability manifests itself in a variety of forms.

Accountability focuses on results. The accountability policy shifts the principal focus in the school from input to output, from teaching to learning.

It is common for educators to ask: "How are things going?" "Am I getting through to these kids?" "What's happening to the students in my classes?" "Are they getting the job done?" "Are they in positions that relate to their training?" "Have they advanced toward their career objectives, and, if so, to what extent?" A commitment to being accountable is to know what should be accomplished. The accountability process requires comparing outcomes to previously stated objectives. Accountability in the schools is everyone's job—teachers, students, parents, school board members, and administrators. The responsibility for quality education—learning—does not rest upon the shoulders of the teacher alone.

The Evaluation Process

Quality implies a systematic and continuing evaluation and a search for data, both subjective and objective that will help identify the strong and weak points of the effort. The evaluation plan begins with a review of the written goals that form the *strategy* of the operation. Evaluation continues with the use of those measurement tools that furnish evidence of goal attainment. The primary goal of any assessment is to provide information to improve the decision-making process.

Evaluation is a continuous process of collecting and interpreting information in order to assess previously made decisions. This definition has three major implications: (1) Evaluation is an on-going process, not something that is done only at the end—or once. (2) The evaluation process is not haphazard; instead, it is directed toward achieving specific goals and toward finding answers about how to improve—how to make better decisions. (3) Evaluation requires using accurate and appropriate measuring instruments to collect information needed for decision-making. The evaluation process involves collecting information to enable decision-makers to decide how the vocational program is progressing, how it turned out in the end, and how to do better next time.

Types of Evaluation

There are three types of evaluation for the cooperative plan and the work experience plan in the curriculum. The first type is ***mandatory***, in which the state and/or federal government that provides funds requires evaluation. The second type of evaluation is called ***third-party***, in which the educational institution contracts with other sources to review the program. The third type is called ***internal evaluation***, in which the institution uses its staff, students, and advisory committees to review the plan.

MANDATORY EVALUATION

There are several forms of **mandatory evaluation**. One form is specified in the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, which requires each state council to ". . . evaluate at least once every two years . . . the vocational education program delivery systems assisted under this Act, and under the Job Training Partnership Act, in terms of their adequacy and effectiveness in achieving the purposes of each of the two Acts. . . ."[1] The Act also requires states to evaluate all vocational programs at least once every five years. Another form of mandatory evaluation is the comprehensive program review, which is required by the state department in some states. Many states have developed state-wide evaluation systems for vocational education.

Federal level mandates.—The Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-482) mandated that programs be evaluated by the assessment of planning and operational processes, the success of program graduates, and the achievement of students. It appears that the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 (Public Law 98-524) goes further by requiring that ". . . the capability of the vocational programs to meet the needs for general occupation skills and improvement of academic foundations in order to address the changing content of jobs"[2] be assessed.

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[1] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984*, Title I, Part B—"State Council on Vocational Education," Sec. 112 (d) (9) (A).

[2] *Ibid.*, Sec. 113 (a) (3) (D) (V).

Evaluation and the new definition of "vocational education."—The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 provides the vocational disciplines with a new definition of "vocational education."

> The term "vocational education" means organized educational programs which are directly related to the preparation of individuals in paid or unpaid employment in such fields as agriculture, business occupations, home economics, health occupations, marketing and distributive occupations, technical and emerging occupations, modern industrial and agriculture arts, and trades and industrial occupations, or for additional preparation for a career in such fields, and other occupations, requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree and vocational student organization activities as an integral part of the program, and for purposes of this paragraph, the term "organized education program" means only (A) instruction (including career guidance and counseling) related to the occupations or occupations for which the students are in training or instruction necessary for students to benefit from such training, and (B) the acquisition (including leasing), maintenance, and repair of instructional equipment, supplies, and teaching aids; but the terms do not mean the construction, acquisition, or initial equipment of buildings, or the acquisition or rental of land.[3]

This new definition more restrictively defines what vocational education is and narrows the discipline's focus. Many believe it more clearly identifies the purpose of vocational education. Therefore, program evaluation can be more measurable. Few vocational education leaders would question the intent of the law is to measure the results of vocational education—with more emphasis on what students can do after completing a vocational program than on what is done to the students in the program. The intent of all evaluation as mandated by the law focuses on results—the effects the programs have had on students.

Advisory councils' role in evaluation.—Congress mandated in the Vocational Education Act of 1968 that there be a National Advisory Council on Vocational Education (NACVE) and State Advisory Councils for Vocational Education (SACVE). Among their responsibilities is the evaluation of vocational education, including the cooperative plan. Evaluations are generally through the council members' reading of reports and the holding of hearings, although in some states the councils commission research. In these ways, they become third-party evaluators. The impact of the councils can be strong because one of their charges is to make input into the development of the state plan for vocational education.

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[3] *Ibid.*, House of Representatives Report 98-1129, Ninety-eighth Congress, Second Session, October 2, 1984, p. 55.

Local advisory committees were mandated in the 1976 Act to assist in the evaluation process. These were omitted in the 1984 Act. Even though the new vocational legislation does not mandate local advisory committees, they can be effectively involved in the evaluation of cooperative education.[4] Generally, the local council (committee) will use secondary data supplied by the local education agency (LEA) in looking at the program and in giving advice. The committee members rarely engage in any evaluation based on gathering their own data through formal research procedures. Their evaluations are usually subjective—based on their perceptions.

State-level evaluation—program reviews.—Many states have developed comprehensive state-wide program review systems. The Vocational Education Act of 1976 and the Vocational Education Act of 1984 both require that every five years each local vocational education program must undergo a comprehensive evaluation. This comprehensive evaluation must include examination of the planning and operational activities, student achievement, the employment status of graduates, and the effects of support services provided for special populations. To comply with federal mandates, comprehensive state-wide evaluation programs have become common. For example, Michigan has established a six-step evaluation system model (see Figure 15-1). This model identifies a plan for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data, which is used to measure the effectiveness of vocational education programs in the state.[5]

Most state-wide program reviews involve self-assessment by the LEA. A self-study by the school's vocational educators prior to the on-site visitation by the evaluation team can be very helpful to the school. Program Review for Improvement, Development, and Expansion in Vocational Education (PRIDE), a state-wide evaluation system for vocational education programs in Ohio, and District Review of Vocational Education (DROVE), California's evaluation system, are both examples of state-level program review plans. Both evaluation systems require a self-study by the local personnel and an official on-site review by a selected committee of persons knowledgeable about vocational education. In addition to having the self-assessment report, the visiting team is able to make judgments based on what it observes.

Many vocational educators are concerned about the evaluation mandates stated in the law. Some believe mandated curricula, state-wide testing efforts, state and even national standards for student performance will soon be addi-

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[4] An extensive text on advisory committees, which contains both principles and operational procedures is *Advisory Committees in Action: An Educational-Occupational-Community Partnership*, by Leslie Cochran and L. Allen Phelps, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1980.

[5] Jane Coviello, "Evaluation of Vocational Programs," *Key Concepts in Vocational Education: A Monograph Series*, East Lansing: Michigan Department of Education, Vocational–Technical Education Service, 1979, p. 6.

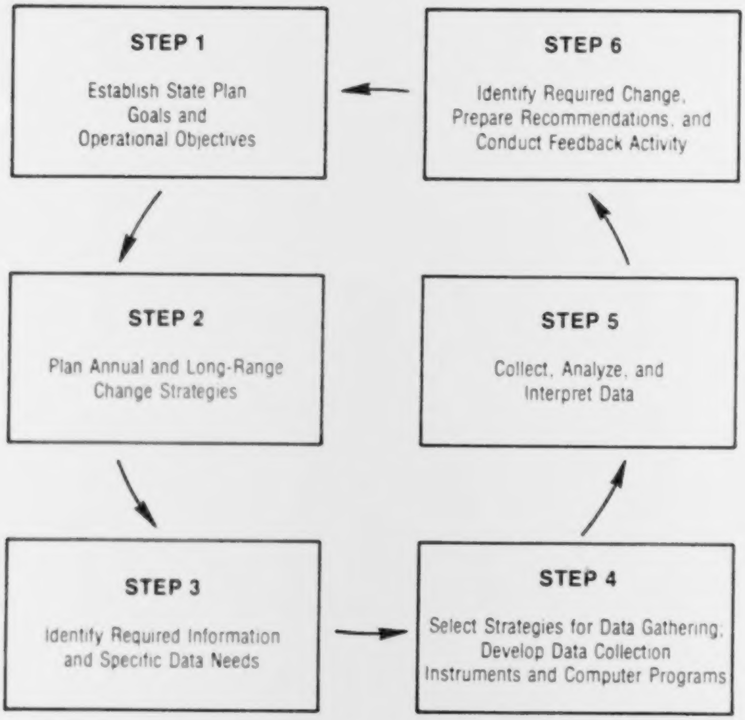
STEP 1
Establish State Plan Goals and Operational Objectives
STEP 6
Identify Required Change, Prepare Recommendations, and Conduct Feedback Activity
STEP 2
Plan Annual and Long-Range Change Strategies
STEP 5
Collect, Analyze, and Interpret Data
STEP 3
Identify Required Information and Specific Data Needs
STEP 4
Select Strategies for Data Gathering; Develop Data Collection Instruments and Computer Programs

FIG. 15-1

tional outcomes of the mandated evaluation requirements. But, no matter what one's beliefs are about federally mandated evaluation efforts, in response to the thrusts promulgated by the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, states are refining and modifying existing assessment systems. For example, the Act requires each state, in consultation with the state council, ". . . to establish committees to . . . develop an inventory of skills. Such inventory will provide the type and level of knowledge and skills needed for entry, retention, and advancement in occupational areas taught in the State."[9]

THIRD-PARTY EVALUATION

Third-party evaluations are those done by contract with a private consulting firm, a consultant from a university or another institution, a government agency, an accrediting association, or perhaps a graduate student. Third-party evaluations are required by some state departments of education. Some contracts with the federal government require third-party evaluation. Because the evaluator is not directly involved in the program's scope of work, the third-party evaluation is relatively free from bias and prejudiced judgments. Third-party evaluations have become more widely used because concerns about sex stereotyping and discriminatory practices have grown in importance.

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[9] *Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act*, Title I, Part B, Sec. 111 (2) (b) (2) (d).

Accrediting association.—Another evaluation method for the cooperative plan is the accreditation program of the regional **accrediting associations** for secondary and post-secondary education. Visitation teams from accrediting associations come to secondary and post-secondary schools periodically. Coordinators are called upon to make self-evaluation studies prior to each visit. In the early years of cooperative education, much of the assessment was built on quantitative data—number of students, size of facilities, etc. Although quantities in assessment studies are important, they remit the comprehensiveness of the study. Evaluations conducted by accrediting associations are increasingly more qualitative in nature.

Coordinators need to be familiar with the sets of evaluative criteria in the *Evaluative Criteria for the Evaluation of Secondary Schools*,[7] published by the National Study of Secondary School Evaluation. For example, the following sections are included: 4-1, Agriculture; 4-3, Business Education; 4-4, Marketing Education; 4-8, Health Education; 4-9, Home Economics; 4-18, Trade, Technical, and Industrial Education. Each section of the criteria has checklist items for rating the organization of the program, nature of offering, physical facilities, directions of learning and outcomes. Self-evaluation by a coordinator who uses these criteria, if they are taken seriously and if they are used as a basis for improvement, can have a positive effect upon the instruction provided.

INTERNAL EVALUATION

Internal evaluation occurs daily as each teacher-coordinator asks, "How did I do today?" It continues as the teacher-coordinators check with the school's administrators, the employers at the training stations, and, most importantly, the students. It culminates with end-of-the-year reports to the administration and with the students' final grade.

The critical factor technique.—The **critical factor technique** involves effort by local personnel. It assesses a host of factors thought to be vital by those in the local district. This is beneficial to the professional development of the staff. All too often the formal evaluation reports gather dust on shelves. The teacher-coordinators do not put the results into use, nor do they let their publics know the results. It would be better if the local coordinator and the administrator were to use a technique known as the critical factor approach. This procedure says that although there are many quality factors that may be investigated, if a complete picture of an operation is warranted, there are a few factors that are *crucial* to quality. If any crucial factors are not present or are badly handled, the plan can be judged as being in trouble no matter how high the quality of a host of minor factors turns out to be.

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[7] *Evaluative Criteria for the Evaluation of Secondary Schools*, Fifth Edition, Washington, D.C.: National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, 1977. Many states send teams on evaluative visits to vocational programs and provide these teams with instruments specifically developed for the teams' use.

The critical factor technique is very valuable to busy administrators who need to use their time wisely by looking carefully at only a few items to judge the quality of the operation. This technique is a form of *management by exception* and tells administrators whether they should investigate further. Among the crucial questions or factors are:

1. Is a certified teacher-coordinator on the job?
2. Is the related class teacher responsible for the coordination visits and does that person have adequate coordination time?
3. Is related instruction that is appropriate to each student-learner's career goals provided?
4. Is the classroom for related instruction adequate in space and equipped and laid out to facilitate individualized instruction?
5. Are training plans developed and used?
6. Are training stations selected and developed by the coordinator?
7. Are advisory committees for each occupational area operative?
8. Are there plans for helping the special needs students?

Process- and/or Product-oriented Evaluation

Should the process and/or the product of vocational education programs be evaluated? Can one be assessed without the other being evaluated? Which should it be—process or product? These questions and many others like them create much discussion among vocational educators. **Process-oriented evaluation** requires looking at the *procedures* (instructional strategies, instructional facilities, including laboratories; and instructional materials) used in the vocational education programs to teach occupational skills and knowledges. Evaluating vocational education's product—the student—requires assessing the *outcomes* (skills and knowledges, job placement, and program costs).

The Vocational Education Act of 1984 prescribes **product-oriented evaluation**. The law does require some data collected from process assessment—condition of facilities and equipment, teacher qualifications, and instructional procedures. Congress has clearly mandated vocational education to prove its effectiveness in terms of measurable outcomes. Most vocational educators would agree that product-oriented evaluation is important. Vocational education's success should be measured based on the number of students trained, the number placed on jobs, and the effectiveness of the occupational training, measured by how well students perform on their jobs. However, many vocational educators would argue that there is danger in focusing only on product-oriented evaluation, especially job placement data. They feel evaluation of vocational programs should be based on both process and product criteria. Product-oriented evaluation emphasizes the easily quantified elements of a program, while it neglects the more subjective, less tangible points that may be more directly related to program improvement. Student achievement may be in increased poise and confidence, success in learning compared to previous failure, and better command of the education basics. Such achievements are difficult to assess except in the most subjective terms.

Evaluation of occupational cooperative education plans should be in terms of both process and product. If the primary purpose of the evaluation is to look at specific aspects of the instruction that need to be improved, then ***process-oriented evaluation*** is what is needed. If, on the other hand, the assessment's primary goal is to determine the general efficiency and effectiveness of all the vocational instruction included in a particular program, then product-oriented evaluation should be used. In practice, however, it is imperative that both process- and product-oriented assessments be employed.

In the final analysis, how well cooperative education works is judged on the basis of how well the product—the student—does. Many evaluation schemes measure the degree of plan effectiveness based only on job placement. If "output" is defined broadly to include more than acquiring occupational skills and knowledges, to include a wider range of knowledges, attitudes, and behaviors as well, one will have a "product-oriented" approach that will be sensitive to all the outcomes of education—attitudes, values, and behaviors.

Before judgment is passed on the degree of effectiveness of a cooperative education plan, the evaluation scheme should consider the systems inputs (what goes into the educational program), the schooling process (what goes on in the program), and the outputs, or outcomes (what the clients are like when they leave the program). The following is a process/product-oriented evaluation model, which, while not neglecting the program's outcomes, draws attention to other important program components.

Process/Product-oriented Evaluation Model

INPUT **(What goes into the program)**	**PROCESS** **(What goes on in the program)**	**OUTPUT** **(What the clients are like when they leave the program)**
Resources Budgets Facilities Equipment Materials Community belief system Curriculum structure Characteristics of human resources Students Teachers Administrators	Teaching-learning process Teaching-learning styles Teaching-learning strategies World-of-work experiences Individualized study School laboratories	Student achievement Occupational skills Job placement Personal traits and characteristics Basic skill development Economic accomplishments Student attitudes/values as workers as citizens as family members

MAJOR EVALUATION QUESTIONS

Those who are policy makers and influencers with regard to vocational education ask some major questions about its effectiveness. These questions are designed to assess both process and product. While the following questions are broad, they can be asked about the total cooperative plan in an LEA, as well as about the plan in one occupational area in one building.[8]

1. ***What evidence do you have that vocational graduates have advantages in the market place over non-vocational graduates?***

   Placement rates, salary levels, the amount of time graduates spend unemployed, and promotability statistics on graduates provide the best responses to this question.

2. ***Does the course content of vocational education actually reflect changes in the demand for workers and in the needs of the work place?***

   The proportion of students employed in the field for which they were trained, occupational survey data that show a demand for graduates that is greater than the number completing programs, a survey of workers' attitudes concerning the relevance of the training they received, descriptions of curriculum revision activities designed to keep content up-to-date, and reports on courses that have been discontinued in favor of more appropriate ones provide good responses to this question.

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[8] This material was adapted from a handout at a national conference, circa 1978. The author(s) is not known.

3. ***What evidence do you have that women are now enrolling in nontraditional vocational areas that offer better than average pay?***

   Comparisons of enrollment in key fields by women today and five years ago offer the best response to this question.

4. ***What evidence do you have that vocational education is enrolling minority students in vocational areas that offer better than average pay?***

   Comparisons of minority enrollment in engineering technology and other skills trades programs today and five years ago offer the best responses to this question.

5. ***What evidence do you have that vocational education is effective in assisting existing workers in efforts to upgrade their competencies? To increase their productivity and promotability?***

   Figures on the number of adults who have been promoted after participating in a vocational education program, personal testimonies from participants, or a survey of employers provides the best response to this question.

6. ***What evidence do you have that vocational education is working effectively with students who are physically and/or mentally handicapped?***

   Enrollment data for students who are physically and/or mentally handicapped and placement data today compared to five years ago provide good responses to this question. The teacher-coordinator may wish to write a case example to illustrate efforts in this area.

Evaluation Schemes and Strategies

Available to those who are responsible for assessing cooperative occupational education plans are many evaluation schemes and strategies. Selection of the proper evaluation tools should be based on questions such as:

1. What is being evaluated? (*e.g.*, process and/or product components)
2. What resources are available? (*e.g.*, monies, facilities, and personnel)
3. Who will be conducting the evaluation? (*e.g.*, trained evaluators, teachers, members of the local advisory committee)

4. Why is the evaluation being done? (e.g., for accreditation purposes, for the state department)
5. How will the data be analyzed? (e.g., computer assistance, statistical models, the evaluation design)
6. What are the intended uses for the data collected? (e.g., curriculum revision, program expansion)

Of all the strategies, schemes, and tools available for program assessment, there are three evaluation schemes being widely used to assess vocational education programs. They are: (1) follow-up studies, (2) comprehensive program reviews, and (3) cost-benefit studies.

A fourth evaluation scheme, **time-use analysis**, has been gaining much attention. This evaluation strategy, typically used in connection with the three evaluation strategies mentioned above, is also called **time-on-task analysis**, **learning-time analysis**, or **engaged-time analysis**. ***Learning-time analysis*** has gained significant favor in response to the national thrust for school excellence. Engaged time is the time students work on tasks directly related to the subject they are supposed to be learning. The basic premise of the strategy rests on the research findings that show that student performance can be improved by:

1. Increasing the time students spend actively learning and practicing a skill.
2. Having students engage in learning tasks that provide them with a high rate of success (successful learning experiences are motivating).
3. Involving students in learning activities that require them to interact with others.
4. Tailoring instructional strategies and materials to students' learning styles and achievement levels.
5. Providing students with frequent feedback. Learning-time analysis focuses on the first research finding. It provides methods that assist coordinators in increasing the amount of time students must apply themselves to learning both in the related class and on the job.

LEARNING-TIME ANALYSIS (TIME-ON-TASK ANALYSIS)

The actual amount of time a student spends during the instructional period, both in the related class and on the job, has become important in assessing the teaching-learning process. The National Commission on Excellence in Education's report, and a significant number of other educational reports completed during 1983–1984, called for longer school days and years. The

National Commission on Excellence in Education's report, frequently called the President's Report, strongly recommended that the actual time students spend in learning activities needed to be increased.

Most educators would agree that simply increasing the school day and school year, thus creating "more sit-time," would have little if any positive effect on student achievement. But, several research studies do support the premise that the more efficiently time is spent in learning activities, the greater the students' achievement. Thus, the more efficiently time is spent in learning experiences in the cooperative related class and at the training station, the more likely it is that student achievement will increase. The more efficiently coordinators manage the time students actually spend engaged in learning experiences in school and on the job that further develop technical know-how, basic skills, and general employability skills, the greater the chances are that students will be better prepared for entry into the world of work.

The terms "learning-time analysis," "time-use analysis," and "time-on-task analysis" are frequently used interchangeably. Each relates to a method for determining how much related class time and on-the-job training time students actually spend engaged in learning.[9] Each method requires observing how much time students actually spend learning; identifying which students are off task (and what they are doing instead); and selecting teaching-learning methods to increase the time students actually spend learning. The basic goal is to increase the amount of time students actually work on any assigned activity that builds the desired skill.

FOLLOW-UP OF LABOR MARKET BEHAVIOR

A follow-up of graduates and non-graduates in programs reimbursable from federal and state funds is required. A follow-up study should ascertain the employment status of each graduate, any additional education being undertaken, and the relationship of the graduate's employment to the career objective and the training station placement. A follow-up made about nine months after graduation provides information regarding the graduates' employment patterns that have followed temporary first jobs or college entry. The longitudinal study of two to five years helps to determine the graduates' current employment status and to illuminate patterns of advancement, besides discovering relationships between their occupational areas of original training and their current occupations.

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[9] For a publication that is designed to provide coordinators with detailed step-by-step procedures for evaluating the training station and for determining the amount of a student's time actually spend in learning activities, see *Assessing Learning Times at the Co-op Training Station*, by Jeanne Desy, Lee Norton, and Stephen J. Franchak. Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1984.

1. What proportion of the graduates (cooperative trainees) are employed approximately three, six, nine months after graduation?
2. To what degree do graduates find employment in occupations the same as, or similar to, the ones for which they were trained?
3. To what extent do employers of cooperative trainees retain them as full-time employees?
4. In what ways does the trainees' scholastic ability, as measured by rank in class, affect labor market behavior?
5. What is the duration of the trainees' unemployment following graduation?
6. What additional education have cooperative trainees completed after graduation?
7. To what extent do cooperative trainees enrolled in a post-secondary school concentrate in a field comparable to their cooperative training?
8. To what extent are cooperative trainees experiencing greater job satisfaction?

PROCEDURES IN MAKING FOLLOW-UP STUDIES

Various techniques can be used in making follow-up studies. Some schools rely on the mail questionnaire exclusively. The problem with this technique is that some graduates simply do not respond and must be contacted personally. Telephone interviews are quite satisfactory in communities where most graduates remain. An interview is more reliable in ascertaining the exact nature of the graduate's present job or educational endeavor and provides the personal touch in maintaining good relations.

Whatever the method of contact, the key to follow-up is an accurate file on each graduate. The file card should be made up before the student's graduation and should include names and addresses of relatives, a code number showing the job title of the student-learner, rank in graduating class, career goal, and other data to be used later as criteria against which to measure success. This file is essential in accomplishing longitudinal studies covering periods of three to five years or more.

In most schools the follow-up studies are made by the coordinators. If a school has a vocational director, that person is usually assigned the responsibility. Large school districts often centralize follow-up studies by conducting them out of the LEA's central office, with the assistance of counselors and chapters of vocational student organizations.

Public school districts have never exhibited much interest or investment of resources in the follow-up of vocational students except for "nose-counting" to see who obtained what job. Recently, there has been interest in the premise that occupational education is not complete without systematic and personal follow-up to aid the students with whatever transitional problems occur. Ideally, the school—secondary or post-secondary— should provide follow-up assistance to graduates of the school's cooperative plan. Few would argue that a follow-up visitation program is beneficial for the students and the school. However, because so many schools are facing severe financial crises, they cannot afford the assistance, even though they may be in philosophical agreement.

Many states have developed state-wide follow-up systems. Because the Vocational Education Act of 1976 emphasized evaluation, state departments of education and other agencies developed various assessment models. A state-wide follow-up study standarized the information collected, validated follow-up information collected by teacher-coordinators, and established a reliable and valid data base that could be used for state-wide program improvement efforts. Not only did a more comprehensive follow-up system measure skills development and job placements, but it also included attitudes and feelings about work.

Employer follow-up studies.—Those who have hired cooperative education students should be an integral part of the evaluation system. The information they can provide can be helpful in assessing the program's success in preparing students for the world of work. Employer follow-up studies can provide data about the on-the-job performance of cooperative students they have hired and the level of occupational skills possessed by the students. Information from employers regarding their satisfaction with the employees' training and job performance can be a significant input for improvement efforts. Analyzing the employer satisfaction data collected can be most helpful when refining and modifying the program to improve the cooperative plan's quality of instruction, the instructional content included, and the training stations used.

PROGRAM REVIEWS

The **program review** has been the major evaluation technique in cooperative vocational education. Through it, components such as staff qualifications and development, availability of instructional materials, appropriateness of space and facilities, and recruitment and placement practices are reviewed and judged. Assessing these program components is important, for without needed staff, materials, and media, instruction is likely to suffer. But, the program review that concentrates on quantity factors, such as square feet of space available and number of students enrolled in the program, is not truly assessing the cooperative plan. Any review should be equally concerned with quality measurement. For example, how well are students achieving? Are they learning the skills needed for entry-level employment? Are they developing positive work attitudes?

Program reviews should be a combined endeavor by the local school and state consultant staff in vocational education, by teacher-educators, and by employers. In some states, brief program reviews are conducted annually; in other states, they are sporadic, because some states may have only one consultant for 200 or more secondary programs. To reduce the work load of overburdened staffs, some state consultants are now using the technique of *management by exception*. They use reports and brief visitations to uncover those situations that seem to have major weaknesses. For these, they schedule full-scale program reviews.

How to conduct the review.—The purposes of a program review are to involve the local school staff in looking at itself and its program, to pinpoint the strengths and weaknesses of various program components, and to provide administrative support for the correction of deficiencies. Only the local school can improve a program, when and if it wishes to do so. A "heavy-hammer" approach from an agency such as a state department can cause resentment and can create little desire to improve the quality of the program—which is what evaluation is all about. The review should involve the following: (1) visitations to the classroom; (2) interviews with students and graduates; (3) discussions with training station sponsors and advisory committee members; (4) meetings with counselors and teachers who relate to the vocational students; and (5) examination of training memorandums and agreements, step-by-step training plans, instructional materials, and student organization records. Among the criteria for a program review are:

1. Time requirements of the appropriate occupational area, especially those requiring licensing exams, must be met.
2. Each student's career goal, application, and personal interview must be on file as a matter of written record.
3. Textbooks and instructional materials, including written and multimedia programs such as tapes and tape-slides, must be up-to-date, readily accessible, and used. Self-study and reference material should be available and used in conjunction with specific instruction based on each student's career objectives.
4. Minimum and maximum class enrollment must be met.
5. Business, industry, and labor leaders in the community must be used as resource persons in the instructional program.

6. The selection of students for the program must be done by the teacher-coordinator and guidance personnel working together to determine the student's interests, needs, and career objectives.
7. The professional growth of the instructor must be evidenced by his/her attaining updated occupational experience; becoming a member of professional education associations; and attending workshops, special training sessions, and regional and/or national conferences.
8. The teacher-coordinator must be on an extended contract for at least four weeks.
9. Data from follow-up of graduates must be used in program planning.
10. An adequate budget to purchase equipment, consumable supplies, and instructional materials must be maintained. Adequate monies to cover travel costs for on-the-job coordination visits must be allocated.
11. An active, local vocational student organization must be operative.
12. The related class must be taught by the teacher-coordinator.
13. A training agreement for each student must be on file. Training stations must comply with state and federal laws pertaining to student employment.
13. A schedule of on-the-job training experiences (training plan) for each student must be drawn up with each employer and must be on file in the teacher-coordinator's office.
15. Safety must be taught in the related class and on the job.
16. A minimum of one-half hour per week must be spent by the teacher-coordinator with each student on coordination activities.
17. Credit toward graduation must be given students for their related class instruction and on-the-job experience.
18. An adequate number of professional leave days and travel monies should be available for the teacher-coordinator to engage in professional development activities.
19. Training stations must be visited regularly by the teacher-coordinator, according to the students' needs and the employers' time and day preferences.
20. The teacher-coordinator must have adequate office space and access to a telephone.
21. A program of public relations must be consistently carried out.

The primary purpose of a program review is to determine whether the ends (goals) have been accomplished. Each element of a cooperative plan is only the means to an end —one part of the entire set of operational functions that make for quality programs. Judgments about a program's strengths and weaknesses should be formed, based on all the data collected in the whole review. To determine a program's successes or failures based only on the results of a few isolated elements is to have violated sound evaluation principles.

EVALUATING A WORK EXPERIENCE PLAN

The criteria used for the evaluation of a general work experience plan should differ from those used in the evaluation of the cooperative occupational education plan, since the goals of each are significantly different, and the operational strategies are not similar. The primary criterion in evaluating the success of a general education work experience plan is: "Have the objectives (goals) of the plan been realized?" However, the evaluation process must go beyond this, using criteria related to operating procedures and seeking evidence from the groups affected—businesspersons, counselors, teachers, students, and parents. The criteria in the list that follows can be used by curriculum planners and program coordinators to plan procedures for organizing and operating work experience plans.[10]

1. Does the coordinator (supervisor) have sufficient time for placement, supervision, counseling, and other program responsibilities? In a general work experience plan, a coordinator can usually supervise from 40 to 60 students if allotted half a school day. On the other hand, work experience plans for persons with special needs may require a full-time coordination load to exceed no more than 25 students.
2. Are sufficient visits made to the job placement situation, to assure evaluation of each student's progress, maintenance of good working relations with employers, and early discovery of student problems?
3. Are adequate records that reveal number of hours worked, job progress, and observance of labor laws maintained?
4. Is there close cooperation between the coordinator and the guidance department personnel with regard to selection of students whose needs can be met by the plan? Are records of each student's progress in the program reviewed and discussed with the individual student?
5. Has a class been organized, at least one day a week, or several hours a week, in which the coordinator–work experience supervisor meets with the students to discuss their job problems and to provide group and individual counseling?
6. Do the school and the community really understand that the plan is general education in purpose, and not vocational? Are differences in plan procedures, student selection and school-related instruction be-

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[10] The criteria in this list have been adapted from *Work Experience Education*, a handbook for California secondary schools, Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1972.

tween the work experience plan and the cooperative occupational education plan clearly understood by the groups affected by both plans?

7. Is an advisory committee used for each type of work experience plan? Do these committees meet regularly, and have they been continually involved in counseling with regard to the plan and in assisting with public relations, in locating work stations, and in evaluation?
8. Are there a functioning evaluation process and a follow-up of students?
9. Are employers briefed as to the nature of the work experience plan, the type of students they will be supervising, and their responsibilities for students on the job?
10. Are there standards established to be used in approving work stations and work assignments?
11. Is the plan individualized enough to accomplish its desired outcomes, rather than standardized to fit the regular school program?
12. Is full advantage taken of community resources in planning and carrying out the plan?
13. Is academic credit applicable for graduation given only to students in plans in which the school is assured that *learning*, rather than *earning*, is the primary outcome?
14. If the plan deals primarily with persons who have special needs, is the coordinator professionally prepared to deal with these special needs?

COST-BENEFIT STUDIES

Recent accountability thrusts by local, state, and federal agencies and the Vocational Education Act of 1976 and the Vocational Education Act of 1984 clearly reflect the need for vocational education to try to prove its effectiveness (its worth to society). **Cost-benefit** (or cost-effectiveness) **studies** move beyond a description of the occupational status of graduates of vocational education programs. They get at the economics of input-output by asking: Was the vocational education program worth its cost to the individual? Was it worth its cost to the taxpayer and to society?

If the appropriate data are collected and analyzed, cooperative education will have few if any problems in convincing interested publics of its value and contributions. The financial impact of cooperative education on the economy of the local community, the state, and the nation may be more far-reaching than some people recognize. More studies about the cost-benefits of cooperative education are now being conducted. Cooperative education programs must give priority to evaluation schemes that document the need for the cooperative plan.

Cost-benefit evaluation is the least developed evaluation strategy.[11] Cost-effectiveness studies are complicated because inputs and outputs are not absolute. To determine the rate of return on investment requires having absolute figures. In business and industry, cost-benefit studies are relatively simple to conduct because cost figures are definite; in education, costs are sometimes obscure and the benefits can never be expressed purely in financial data. Many of the benefits of cooperative education are intangible—better learner attitudes, positive self-concepts, established work ethic values, improved achievement in school are just a few of the ways individuals and society in general benefit from cooperative education, but these benefits are difficult if not impossible to quantify.

VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT

Another scheme for measuring performance is the "value-added" model. This evaluation model searches for the positive difference made by an existing program. It assesses the ability of the teaching-learning process in influencing students favorably by making a positive and identifiable contribution to their development. **Value-added assessment** focuses on the degree of improvement in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Basic to this evaluation scheme is the notion that "value-added" causes change. The improvement, the margin of effectiveness, presupposes the existence of change—change that has taken place as a result of the cooperative plan.

A Summary View

The concept of accountability implies precise educational goals. A careful assessment will tell "how we're doing" compared to "what we want to do." A systematic approach (a management approach) to education includes identifying goals and objectives, planning and carrying out processes for their attainment, monitoring and reporting results, and continuing to refine the total endeavor.

All vocational education, including cooperative education, will need to be more in tune with program planning and evaluation in the years to come. Steps will need to be taken to define more carefully where vocational educators want to go (goals), how they will get there (educational process), and how they are doing (assessment). Evaluation schemes and strategies that will allow vocational educators to be more definite about outputs will need to be developed. The end product—adults equipped with relevant knowledges, interested in being contributing members of society and with the competence to do so—is what educators must be accountable for.

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[11] Frederick Welch, *Cooperative Education. A Review*. Information Series No. 116, Columbus, Ohio: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1977, pp. 35–53.

Question and Activities

1. In outline form write up a follow-up plan for use with cooperative education graduates. Assume you are a teacher-coordinator and will be using the system without computer assistance.
2. Design an evaluative checklist for a cooperative education plan in your chosen discipline. Include criteria to cover goals and objectives, organization, nature of offerings, physical facilities and equipment, staffing, instructional materials, budget, and outcomes.
3. Compare the evaluation requirements included in the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 with those required by the 1976 Vocational Education Act. How often must periodic evaluations be conducted and which elements of a program does the law require to be evaluated? Are there any special evaluation requirements for cooperative education?
4. Contact your state department of education, vocational division, for information about evaluation. What evaluative criteria or checklists does the staff use when evaluating a local cooperative plan?
5. Make arrangements to visit a local cooperative or work experience plan. After the visit, describe the plan and list the crucial questions you asked or the factors you looked for in your visit.
6. Assume the role of a counselor, a businessperson, an advisory committee member, another vocational teacher, a principal, a vocational director, or a student. For the role, list the crucial questions you would have about a cooperative plan. Be sure the questions or factors can be measured in some way.
7. Oppose or defend the proposition that the crucial evaluation question for cooperative education (or any vocational offering) is whether the graduates obtain jobs in the fields for which they are trained.
8. Assume you are a state supervisor of an occupational program and your task is to conduct a new series of program reviews of cooperative plans. Prepare a paper which shows how local personnel are to be involved, what materials are to be available for inspection, and what factors are to be assessed.
9. Assume you are responsible for making arrangements for a third-party evaluation. Make a list of the qualifications you would want the third-party evaluator(s) to possess.
10. Assume you are a teacher-coordinator. What do you perceive your responsibilities to be for increasing engaged-time, learning-time on the job? How would you present the issue to the training sponsor?

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

16

Legal Aspects of Cooperative Education[1]

Student-learners are affected by local, state, and federal laws in relationships at school and at training stations.

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[1] Prepared by Lorraine T. Furtado as fulfillment of the requirements for Independent Research, Capital University Law School, October 1985.

KEY CONCEPT: *Teachers are expected to know "the law." The courts will not accept ignorance of the law as a defense.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify those topics that have direct impact on vocational education teachers and their students.
- Explain the importance of case decisions in establishing law.
- Enumerate basic student rights that must be recognized in the classroom.
- Explain how teachers act *in loco parentis* when working with students.
- Explain how teachers can legally administer corporal punishment to students.
- Explain how schools can legally regulate student behavior at school functions.
- Explain the extent to which state legislatures have control over public education.

KEY TERMS

academic sanction
administrative laws
due process
equal educational opportunity
in loco parentis

From Classroom to Courtroom

Over the past two decades, state and federal courts have had a profound impact on how the nation's public classrooms operate. As teachers and administrators will testify, the application of law to school conflicts has frequently changed the way decisions are made and the role of professional educators in developing educational policies. Two decades ago, the legal concerns of education generally related to rather mundane issues, and school board decisions were commonly accepted as the last word. Today, schooling is no longer regarded as a take-it-or-leave-it proposition. As never before, the legal fulcrum on which the student-teacher-school relationship balances requires the interpretations of constitutional, statutory, and case law.

While it is generally true that the courts are reluctant to interfere with the judgments of educators, except in cases of clear professional abuse, the courts have decided questions embraced with the human rights issues contained in the U.S. Constitution, as well as curriculum mandates; teacher contracts; student personnel issues, including discipline; and the vast area called "equal protection of the law." The courts increasingly are being called upon to deal with school-related issues that represent individual and group social, economic, political, and personal rights.

TEACHERS HARBOR MYTHS ABOUT "THE LAW"

It is reasonable to assume that even though most educators, including vocational educators, are aware of the burgeoning litigation and legislation and have some degree of familiarity with a few of the landmark Supreme Court cases, they harbor misunderstandings and uncertainties about the legality of the daily decisions they must make in the classroom. Only those topics with a direct impact on vocational education teachers and their students are addressed here. But, each topical area is documented so that the reader can explore specific cases and/or points of law in more detail.

In reading this material, keep in mind several propositions. These are:

1. Laws have a powerful force in shaping educational policies at the national, state, and local levels.[2]
2. Laws are created by people; and human biases and prejudices impact the decisions made. Thus, laws and legal principles are not always objective; instead, they reflect personal considerations.[3]

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[2] See, e.g., *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriquez*, 411 U.S. 1, 93 S.Ct. 40 (1973).

[3] See, e.g., *Snow v. State of New York*, 98 A.D.2d 442, 469 N.Y.S.2d 959 at 961 (1983), affirmed December 28, 1984.

3. Laws are not static, nor are they created in a vacuum. But rather, they are continually evolving as courts redefine constitutional provisions and legislatures enact new statutes.[4]
4. Laws on some school issues are far from clear, and some questions confronting teachers have not yet been addressed by the courts and the legislatures.[5] But in spite of these problems, certain legal principles have been established and can be relied on for direction in resolving daily classroom decisions.

IT'S A LITIGATION ERA

Most educators would probably agree that the classroom is not what it used to be, nor is teaching what it used to be. In an era of unprecedented litigation—we are probably the most litigious people in history—the law is more and more the means for attempting to resolve school problems that were once either resolved within the school's walls or left unresolved. Many teachers have discovered, some too late, that there are legal as well as educational consequences in the smallest and seemingly most innocuous daily decisions. Vocational educators should understand the legal dimensions of their decision-making, the current application of the law to classroom decisions, and their rights and responsibilities in making these decisions. Not only does preventive legal planning tend to decrease the likelihood of a lawsuit actually being filed but it also gives better assurance of good defense if one is filed.

The Classroom and the Legal System: An Overview

As educators become increasingly involved in legal actions, at minimum some basic knowledge about the judicial system and how it operates is essential. Having some awareness of what "the law" is as it applies to vocational education, and how "the law" functions, can be helpful in avoiding lawsuits. Lawsuits in which teachers are either plaintiffs or defendents are on the increase.

WHAT IS "THE LAW"?

The term "the law" is used to describe broad, general rules that govern the actions of society. Legislative enactments such as congressional acts, state statutes, and city ordinances create laws. State boards of education develop rules and regulations, which are laws. These laws are commonly called **administrative laws**. A great deal of law results from court decisions. These laws, along with opinions of attorneys general and similar rulings, are generally called common law. The President of the United States can issue executive orders, which are also "the law." Taken together, actions by the judicial, legislative, and executive branches of the government are "the laws."

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[4] See, *e.g.*, *New Jersey v. T.L.O.*, 105 S.Ct. 733 (1985).

[5] See, *e.g.*, Justice White, writing for the majority in *New Jersey v. T.L.O.*, 105 S.Ct. 733 (1985).

Since ***Brown*** v. ***Board of Education***, most school laws are the result of court decisions—common law.[6] From case decisions have emerged "case law," or common law, establishing the base of proper conduct in our schools. Thus, many of the principles governing what schools do and do not do are not the result of statutory or constitutional provisions, but rather the result of court decisions, the common law.

Laws are not static; most laws change as society changes. The laws need to be definitive enough to allow the people to know what is a violation and what is not. In addition, they need to be clear enough so as to predict what the courts might rule when they are violated. On the other hand, the laws must be responsive to changing societal values. The civil rights movement brought about many court decisions impacting on individual rights. Racial segregation was no longer acceptable to most people. Rather than wait for legislative bodies to change the laws, people turned to the courts for new laws.[7]

ARE TEACHERS RESPONSIBLE FOR KNOWING "THE LAW"?

Like every citizen, teachers are expected to know "the law." The courts will not accept ignorance of the law as a defense. Actually, the courts recognize that it is impossible for every individual to be aware of all his/her rights and duties in every instance; but, if the courts allowed ignorance of the law as a defense, and there was no way to refute such a claim, ignorance of the law would most likely be claimed not only by those who truly were ignorant but also by others as well.

Thus, teachers are expected not only to know the law but also to abide by it. Because elementary and secondary teachers deal with the lives of the young, the next generation, they are, as professionals, vulnerable to being sued. Quite understandably, juries demand that teachers practice a higher standard of care than ordinary citizens. It is probably true that all who have taught for any length of time have faced the potential of being sued several times during a school year. Consider for a moment these typical vocational education activities and their potential to generate lawsuits:

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[6] *Brown* v. *Board of Education (I)*, 347 U.S. 483, 74 S.Ct. 686 (1954).

[7] See, e.g., *Brown* v. *Board of Education (II)*, 349 U.S. 294, 75 S.Ct. 753 (1955).

1. Student raped by a classmate while in attendance at a regional vocational student organization conference.
2. Student stumbles over an open desk drawer and falls, causing severe injuries to the head.
3. Two students in a cooperative plan attending an employer recognition banquet "spike" the punch. They leave the dinner intoxicated and are involved in an accident. Six people are killed—one of the students and five passengers in the other car.
4. Two students begin fighting in the classroom. The teacher, in attempting to break up the fight, grabs one of the students by the arm and dislocates the student's shoulder.

Obviously, the best protection against a lawsuit is at least knowing some basics on how to avoid being sued. Many suits could be prevented if teachers would become fully aware of the danger points and would maximize their defenses against the problems. Having an understanding of state and federal judicial systems can be helpful in comprehending what is often seen by educators to be a maze of legal entities.

FEDERAL AND STATE JUDICIAL SYSTEMS

The U.S. judicial system consists of two tracks: the federal court system and the state court system. Recourse in the federal court system is limited to questions involving the federal Constitution, or a federal statute, or diversity of state residence between the parties to the action. Thus, federal courts have jurisdiction over three types of cases: (1) those that give rise to federal constitutional questions, (2) those issues that pertain to federal statutes, and (3) those in which there is diversity of state residence between the litigants.

Federal courts.—The federal court system includes the U.S. Supreme Court, the U.S. courts of appeals, the U.S. district courts, and a variety of courts developed to handle special purposes, such as customs courts, bankruptcy courts, and tax courts. The U.S. Constitution created the Supreme Court only. All the other federal courts were established by congressional acts. The U.S. district courts are the trial courts of general jurisdiction. Each state contains one or more districts, for a total of 89 federal district courts. The United States is divided into 12 circuits, and each circuit has a U.S. court of appeals. These circuit courts of appeals review cases originally tried in the trial courts. The rulings of these appellate courts are binding on federal trial courts in the states included within a circuit and persuasive on other courts. Generally, cases in courts of appeals are decided by three-judge panels.

As stated above, the U.S. Supreme Court was established by the Constitution and is superior to all state and federal courts. The Court's nine justices must hear, as a matter of right, appeals from decisions by three-judge appellate court panels, decisions of state courts declaring a federal law unconstitutional, and decisions of state courts denying constitutional challenges to state statutes. In addition, the Supreme Court is empowered to re-examine, at its discretion, decisions of federal courts of appeals and final courts in state systems, "courts of last resort," when federal constitutional or federal statutory issues have been decided. This discretionary jurisdiction is exercised through a writ of certiorari. Four of the nine justices must vote in favor of certiorari. Most cases that get to the U.S. Supreme Court do so because the Court granted certiorari and not as a matter of right. The Supreme Court's ruling enunciates the federal law on the issue.[8]

State courts.—Although state court systems vary from state to state in organization, each state's judicial system is established by its state's constitution and legislature. Generally, a state's system includes a number of different trial courts, each having jurisdiction over specified types of controversies—for example, domestic courts, juvenile courts, common pleas courts, and traffic courts. There appears to be no consistency from state to state in the names each gives its various trial courts. In addition to trial courts, the judicial hierarchy includes one or two levels of appellate courts. In states with two levels of appellate courts, the first level of appeal is commonly called the intermediate appellate court. Frequently, the right of appeal for some types of cases is limited to the intermediate appellate court. Appeals to the second level are at the discretion of the court—certiorari. Although some states do not call their highest court the supreme court, all do refer to their highest court as the "court of last resort." Although state courts are bound by the decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court, they are considered to be parallel in their level of authority with federal district and circuit courts and thus are not bound by the decisions of these courts. However, if a state is within the jurisdiction of a federal circuit court, then it is bound. Generally speaking, federal court decisions are very important in that they often influence state court decisions.

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[8] The Supreme Court held in *Brown v. Board of Education (I)*, 347 U.S. 483 74 S.Ct. 686 (1954), that separate but equal school facilities were in violation of the equal protection clause guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. In *Tinker v. Des Moines School Board*, 393 U.S. 503, 89 S.Ct. 733 (1969), the Supreme Court held that "children are 'persons' under our Constitution, and do not shed their constitutional rights at the schoolhouse gate." The Court ruled that students in school may not be punished for communications "akin to pure speech." *Id.* at 506, 89 S.Ct. 733 at 739. Thus, the wearing of black armbands, or of other types of symbolic speech, in school was permissible as long as such conduct did not create substantial disruption of the school's academic program.

Initiating a suit in a federal court.—Most school law controversies must be settled within state courts because education is a state function and federal courts cannot decide state issues. But, if there is a substantial federal question involving an interpretation of the U.S. Constitution or federal statutes, then the matter may be tried in the federal court system. The increased attention given civil rights issues since the 1960's has led to an increase in the number of education cases being decided in federal courts. A person claiming to have been deprived of federal constitutional or statutory rights by invoking the Civil Right Acts of 1871, commonly known as "Section 1983," can have this claim heard in federal court.[9] Many school rules have been scrutinized in federal courts under Section 1983.[10] Section 1983 states:

> Every person who, under color of any statute, ordinance, regulation, custom, or usage of any State or Territory, subjects or causes to be subjected any citizen of the United States or other person within the jurisdiction thereof to the deprivation of any rights, privileges or immunities secured by the Constitution and the laws, shall be liable to the party injured in an action at law, suit in equity, or other proper proceeding for redress.[11]

In 1980, the Supreme Court ruled that local governments are not entitled to qualified good faith immunity in a Section 1983 action.[12] Most legal writers believe it is reasonable to presume that local school boards would be considered by the courts as "local governments"; thus, they would not be entitled to qualified good faith immunity. With respect for the liability of school board members as individuals, the Court in *Wood* v. *Strickland* held that:

> . . . a school board member is not immune from liability for damages under "Section 1983" if he knew or reasonably should have known that the action he took within his sphere of official responsibility would violate the constitutional rights of the student affected, or if he took the action with malicious intention to cause a deprivation of constitutional rights or other injury to the student.[13]

In *Maine* v. *Thiboutot*, the Supreme Court expanded the scope of rights protected under Section 1983. The Court held that Section 1983 allows a cause of action for claims of violation of federal statutes and claims arising under provisions of the U.S. Constitution. Thus, that violations of federal laws such as the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, Public Law 98-524, and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142, are actionable under Section 1983.

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[9] 42 U.S.C.A., Section 1983.

[10] See, *e.g.*, *Wood* v. *Strickland*, 420 U.S. 308, 95 S.Ct. 992 (1975).

[11] 42 U.S.C., Section 1983 (1976).

[12] *Owen* v. *City of Independence*, 445 U.S. 622 (1980).

[13] 420 U.S. 308, 95 S.Ct. 992 (Arkansas, 1975).

Civil rights legislation enacted during the 1960's and the early 1970's further defined the rights of all citizens against discrimination. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in federally assisted programs or activities, is frequently asserted in school situations when individual rights are allegedly denied. Two other acts under which individual rights are frequently vindicated are Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits sex discrimination against participants in educational programs receiving federal funds, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which prohibits discrimination against persons who are handicapped and are in federally assisted programs or activities.

EDUCATION IS A STATE FUNCTION

The "running" of public schools is an ultimate responsibility of each state. At no point does the Constitution of the United States refer directly to education. Because it does not expressly authorize Congress to provide for public education, the control and management of public schools resides with the states.[14] Public education is not a right protected by the federal Constitution.[15] However, even though the Constitution does not expressly protect an individual's right to public education, it does affect public education. The federal courts, including the U.S. Supreme Court, have consistently made sure that state and local school board rules and regulations do not deprive individuals of their constitutional rights and liberties. The number of education cases in which federal constitutional issues are directly involved have significantly increased in the last two decades.

State constitutions provide the basic law of the individual states. Commonly, state constitutions deal with many of the same subject areas treated in the federal Constitution. States may afford more but no fewer rights and liberties than are required by the federal Constitution. Most state constitutions specifically state the legislatures responsibility for public education. For example, Article VI, Section 2, of the Ohio Constitution requires the state general assembly to provide for "a thorough and efficient system of common schools throughout the State." Subject to federal laws and the federal Constitution and the state constitution, the power of state legislatures of the respective states over public education is plenary—absolute. State legislatures have all powers not expressly forbidden by the federal Constitution or their own state constitution. Thus, state legislatures possess the power to change local school district boundaries, raise revenue and allocate funds for education, establish teacher certification requirements, regulate what is taught in the public schools, mandate school attendance, and control practically every other function in the operation of the public schools.

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[14] The Tenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution states that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people." Thus, education is one of the sovereign powers of the state.

[15] *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriquez*, 411 U.S. 1, 93 S.Ct. 1278 (1973). See *supra* note 1.

All states have established some type of state board of education, with one individual designated as the state's chief administrative officer for education—state superintendent of public education. Members of the state board of education are commonly elected by the people or appointed by the governor. The state superintendent in some states is appointed by the governor; in other states, the state board of education appoints the superintendent; and in still other states, the state superintendent is elected by the citizenry.

In some states the chief school officer is responsible for adjudicating school-related controversies. When such a system exists, usually the grievant cannot file a cause of action in the state's court system until all administrative appeals have been exhausted.

Some state constitutions require the legislature to delegate to the state board of education the authority to establish the necessary rules and regulations to implement state law. Generally speaking, state legislatures cannot delegate their law-making powers, but they can delegate the daily operational functions of running public schools to various agencies.

Each state has established a state department of education. State department of education personnel are responsible for monitoring, proctoring, and advising local school districts to insure that both state and federal legislative mandates and statutes are being properly implemented. In addition, state staff are frequently engaged in research and development activities to improve the quality of education in the state.

State school laws vary widely among the states in scope and degree of specificity. A state's school laws usually comprise what is frequently called its school code. School codes spell out either mandatory or permissive rules and regulations. Mandatory codes define state goals for education and identify the essential state interests, such as teacher certification, special curriculum, and high school graduation requirements. Permissive codes allow for local discretion and encourage local initiative in program development.

School districts and local school boards.—Local school districts are created by state law. They are government agencies through which the legislature carries out the state's constitutional provisions for public education. The state legislature could at any time abolish all local school districts and establish a new system for providing public education, unless the state constitution precludes such actions. Naturally, the state legislature could not change boundaries or establish a state-wide system that would violate the federal Constitution, such as creating segregated school systems.

The belief that local school boards control public education is a widely held misconception. Local school boards possess only those powers granted by their state legislature. But, because the state control in most day-to-day school matters is so remote from the public's view, the local board's decisions do in fact "control" the local district. The local board's plans and decisions are the prime forces in the nature and quality of the local school district's education. All states except Hawaii have established a system whereby operational decisions are delegated to local school boards. In the state of Hawaii, all public school decisions are made at the state level.

Local boards of education are generally held by the courts as quasi-corporate bodies. Local school boards have three kinds of powers: (1) law-generated express powers, (2) implied powers arising from the law-generated express powers, and (3) those powers neither expressed nor implied but reasonably necessary to achieve the purpose for which the local board exists—to run the schools. Thus, school boards usually have the authority to determine specific curriculum offerings, to raise revenue to build and maintain the school system, to hire and fire personnel, to close schools, and to establish teacher assignment policies. It is a well-established fact that local boards of education have the implied power to establish and enforce reasonable rules and regulations for the efficient management of the schools. The courts place a strong presumption in favor of a board's actions being reasonable. Generally speaking, a court will not substitute its judgment for the reasonable judgment of a board.

Today, it is quite common for boards of education to have the power to sue and to be sued. The doctrine of sovereign immunity has largely been eroded. In *Carbone* v. *Overfield*, the Ohio Supreme Court abolished immunity for local school boards.[16] In essence, the court held that local governments are subject to the same liability as private persons and corporations. The court reasoned that local school boards could purchase liability insurance so as to protect themselves and that the legal rational underlying sovereign immunity was archaic.[17]

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[16] 6 Ohio St. 3d 212, 451 N.E.2d 1229 (1983).

[17] The underlying legal reasoning for sovereign immunity was the belief that it was better for a private person injured by the state to suffer than for a local government agency to be "inconvenienced." The doctrine sovereign immunity—the King can do no wrong—originated to protect public servants from personal financial destruction.

THE FEDERAL ROLE IN EDUCATION

Although the federal role in education is indirect, the federal Constitution does confer basic individual rights that must be respected by schools. Under authority of the "general welfare clause," Congress controls the use of federal funds for education.[18] Certain operational functions, such as transportation, safety, and labor regulations, are regulated by the authority given Congress under the "commerce clause."[19]

Federal legislation.—Through legislation, federal support for various educational programs is channeled to the states. There is no doubt that the federal government's involvement in public schools, although indirect, is real. Federal statutes directly affect educational policies. When a state elects to accept federal funds, it is bound to observe the statute's conditions. The interpretation of the conditions included in federal statutes is the province of the federal courts.

From vocational education's perspective, the Morrill Act of 1862, which created land-grant colleges, was the first federal statute giving impetus to vocational education. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was the first federal legislation directed to support vocational education in public schools.[20] In addition to the federal legislation providing financial assistance to schools, Congress has enacted several statutes that require or prohibit certain conduct by state and local school boards receiving federal financial assistance. These statutes cover discrimination as it pertains to "race, color or national origin,"[21] "sex,"[22] and "otherwise qualified handicapped individuals."[23] To assist schools in achieving equal access, Congress has enacted federal legislation providing funds for special needs populations. The Bilingual Education Act of 1968[24] and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975[25] are both examples of legislation directed to serve the needs of "exceptional" children.

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[18] Under the "general welfare clause" in Article I, Section 8, of the U.S. Constitution, Congress has the power "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States."

[19] Under Article I, Section 8, Clause 3, of the U.S. Constitution, Congress has the power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with Indian tribes." Traditionally, the commerce clause has been broadly interpreted. Through a broad interpretation of "commerce," the courts have expanded the federal government's role in regulating activities impacting commercial functions.

[20] The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, Public Law 98-524, is the most recent federal statute in support of vocational education.

[21] 42 U.S.C.A., Sections 2000d–2000d-4, popularly called Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

[22] 20 U.S.C.A., Section 1681, *et seq.*, popularly called Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.

[23] 29 U.S.C.A., Section 794, popularly called Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

[24] 20 U.S.C.A., Section 3221, *et seq.*

[25] 20 U.S.C.A., Section 1401, *et seq.*

The federal Constitution.—As mentioned previously, the federal government's powers to be involved in education are derived from (1) the general welfare clause, Article I, Section 8, of the U.S. Constitution, (2) the commerce clause, Article I, Section 8, Clause 3, of the U.S. Constitution, and (3) the protection of the rights and liberties of individual citizens under the federal Constitution, particularly the First, Fourth, Fifth, Eighth, and Fourteenth amendments.

The ***First Amendment*** protects freedom of religion, speech, and press and the right to petition. It is designed to insure certain basic personal freedoms.[26] Cases involving students' rights of freedom of speech and press and teachers' rights to academic freedom have generated many legal challenges under the First Amendment.[27]

The ***Fourth Amendment*** forbids "unreasonable searches and seizures." It guarantees the right of citizens "to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures." Students' protection under this amendment was recently addressed by the Supreme Court in *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.*[28]

Although school functions essentially involve civil, not criminal matters, the ***Fifth Amendment*** is important in several school situations, such as when a state board of education or local school boards acquire property for school purposes and when teachers are dismissed for activities that occurred outside the school's boundaries. The Fifth Amendment provides "due process" regarding acts of the federal government. Although most school due process issues are initiated under the Fourteenth Amendment, which is related directly to state actions, due process cases in the District of Columbia must be brought under the Fifth Amendment.[29]

The ***Eighth Amendment*** protects citizens from cruel and unusual punishment by government agents. Although the amendment is used more often in cases challenging the treatment of prisoners, it has been used in corporal punishment cases.[30]

The ***Fourteenth Amendment*** is the most frequently used in school cases because it specifically relates to state actions. The right to "due process" and

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[26] The First Amendment reads: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances."

[27] See, e.g., *Tinker* v. *Des Moines School Board*, 393 U.S. 503, 89 S.Ct. 733 (1969); *Pickering* v. *Board of Education of Township High School District 205, Will County*, 391 U.S. 563 (1968).

[28] 105 S.Ct. 733 (1985). See *supra* note 3.

[29] Only federal laws apply in Washington, D.C. The District of Columbia has its own federal district court and circuit court of appeals.

[30] See *infra* note 5.

"equal protection of the laws," the last two clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment, have the most application to public school issues.

Due process clause.—The Fourteenth Amendment's **due process** clause prohibits states from depriving citizens of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. This clause has possibly been construed more frequently than any other provision of the Constitution. Although the Supreme Court has not defined "due process of law" in clearly stated rules, it has ruled that students facing punishment have the right to due process.[31]

Due process has two aspects: substantive and procedural. Substantive due process relates to the legislation (the rule) itself. Determining if the rule satisfies the substantive due process aspect includes answering two questions: Is the rule's purpose within the power of the law maker to pursue and is it rationally related to accomplishing its purpose? Under the second aspect, procedural due process, the question is: Was the rule implemented fairly? In *Carey v. Piphus*, a school suspension case, the Supreme Court ruled that the school was justified in depriving the students of a property interest, the right to go to school (the substantive due process test was met), but the rule was procedurally defective.[32] Thus, the Court found the rule to be in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Equal protection clause.—The Fourteenth Amendment provides that no state shall "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." This clause has frequently been used in school cases involving alleged discrimination.[33] Generally, school rules that discriminate against some students are unconstitutional, since they deny treatment as equals.[34]

Students' Rights in the Classroom

The federal Constitution confers on all people significant substantive rights. These rights are guaranteed and cannot be infringed upon by any state or local government action unless overriding government interest exists.[35]

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[31] *Goss v. Lopez*, 419 U.S. 565, 95 S.Ct. 729 (1975). See *infra* note 9.

[32] 435 U.S. 247, 98 S.Ct. 1042 (1978).

[33] See, *e.g.*, Susanne Martineq, "Sexism Is Public Education: Litigation Issues," *Inequality in Education*, No. 18, October 1972, 6–7.

[34] Treatment as an equal is not the same as equal treatment. "Equal treatment" means all persons must be treated alike; *e.g.*, all persons must be free from illegal searches and seizures. "Treatment as an equal" means a school, *e.g.*, may not establish a double standard, as *e.g.*, one set of rules for boys enrolled in vocational education, another for those not enrolled.

[35] See *Tinker v. Des Moines School Board*, 393 U.S. 503, 89 S.Ct. 733 (1969).

When students exercise these protected rights, often a conflict of interests results between the school officials and the students. The courts have cautiously guarded the constitutional rights of students against undue encroachment by school districts.

In addition to the guaranteed rights conferred by the Constitution, students have specific rights defined by federal and state statutes. For example, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 and the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 delineate specific requirements.[36]

U.S. CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS

Until rather recently, it was believed that a student's constitutional rights were limited. But, over the past two decades, the constitutional rights of students and teachers have been examined and in many situations clearly defined in a rash of state and federal court decisions.[37]

First Amendment rights.—Probably no area of student rights litigation has received as much attention as the protected rights conferred through the First Amendment. The courts have clearly stated that in the area of student press and distribution, students have legal rights protected by the Constitution. Students may publish and distribute their publications free from the potential of being disciplined by school officials as long as such materials do not ". . . justify a 'forecast' of substantial disruption or material interference with the school's policies or invade the rights of others."[38] Although the Court recognized in *Scoville* v. *Board of Education* . . . that school officials have ". . . 'comprehensive authority' to prescribe and control conduct in the schools through reasonable rules," the rules must be "consistent with fundamental constitutional safeguards."[39]

Student publications that merely offend and displease school officials or even materials that raise controversial issues cannot be prohibited. Even when school officials have attempted to control student publications by cutting "the purse strings," the courts have ruled that school districts have the burden of showing justification for their actions. The legal test requires the school officials to show they had a reasonable belief that the publication would have caused substantial disruption of school activities or that it would have invaded the rights of others.[40]

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[36] See, *e.g.*, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, which requires placing handicapped children in the least restrictive educational setting. The Education Amendments of 1984, Public Law 98-511, Title VII—"Bilingual Education Programs," requires school districts to inform parents of students identified for enrollment in such programs ". . . of the reasons for the selection of their child . . . and the nature of the bilingual education program."

[37] See, *e.g.*, *supra* note 34 (student freedom of speech); *Pickering* v. *Board of Education of Township High School District 205, Will County*, 391 U.S. 563 (1968) (teacher freedom of speech); in *re Gault, et al.*, 387 U.S. 1 (1967) (due process rights of juveniles charged with being "delinquents"); *Goss* v. *Lopez*, 419 U.S. 565, 95 S.Ct. 729 (1975) (student due process rights in a suspension situation); *Scoville* v. *Board of Education of Joliet Township High School District 204*, 425 F.2d 10 (1970) (freedom of expression); *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.*, 105 S.Ct. 733 (1985) (student searches by school officials).

[38] *Tinker* v. *Des Moines School Board*, 393 U.S. 503 at 514, 89 S.Ct. 733 at 740 (1969).

[39] *Scoville* v. *Board of Education*, 425 F.2d 10 at 13 (1970).

Generally speaking, federal courts oppose the placing of prior restraint on student publications. In *Fujishima* v. *Board of Education*, the Supreme Court found a school regulation requiring a review or an approval of a student publication before distribution to be unconstitutional.[41] Even though other federal courts have upheld prior restraint rules, they have not allowed school officials much discretion as to what could be censored from distribution.[42]

Just because court decisions have validated the First Amendment press and distribution rights of students does not mean the courts have concluded school officials have no authority over students exercising their freedom of the press rights. In *Baker* v. *Downey City Board of Education*, the Supreme Court ruled that even though students cannot be disciplined for what they say, school officials had the right to control the use of "vulgar" and "profane" terms used by the students to express their views.[43]

> [T]he Court determines that the plaintiffs' First Amendment rights to free speech do not require the suspension of decency in the expression of their views and ideas. The right to criticize and to dissent is protected to high school students but they may be more strictly curtailed in the mode of their expression and in other manners of conduct than college students or adults. The education process must be protected and educational programs properly administered.[44]

In finding the principal's actions in halting the distribution of the school newspaper reasonable, the court in *Williams* v. *Spencer* strongly stressed that prior restraint by school officials of student publications requires greater court scrutiny than discipline imposed after the student publications have been distributed.[45] The court also noted that advertisements (commercial speech), although protected, are not protected to the same high standard as other types of speech.[46] The *Williams* v. *Spencer* case appears to stand for the proposition that school policies need to shift from attempts to exercise authority by means of prior restraint efforts to rules that hold students accountable after the fact for their publications.[47] It should be remembered that student publications are intended to provide students with learning experiences; thus, students should be allowed to make mistakes just as professional journalists do. Students need to learn that they are responsible for what they print. Freedom to print is the rule. The few exceptions include: (1) substantial disruption or material interference with the school program; (2) obscene and pornographic publications; (3) vulgarity and/or words that may lead to disruption ("fighting words"); (4) defamation, such as libel; (5) malicious criticism of school officials; and (6) invasion of the privacy of others.

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[40] See *Reincke* v. *Cobb County School District*, 484 F Supp 1252 (N D Georgia, 1980)

[41] 460 F 2d 1355 (1972)

[42] See, e g , *Shanley* v. *Northeast Independent School District*, 462 F 2d 960 (1972)

[43] 307 F Supp 517 (C D California, 1969)

[44] *Id* at 527

[45] 622 F 2d 1200 (1980)

[46] *Id*

Symbolic speech.—The First Amendment issue in *Tinker* v. *Des Moines School Board* was symbolic speech—the conveying of any message without the use of words.[48] The students wore black armbands to school to protest the hostilities in Vietnam. The principal, fearful that disruption would occur, ordered the students either to take off the armbands or to go home. The Supreme Court concluded that the ". . . problem [in the case] involves direct, primary First Amendment rights akin to 'pure speech'" and thus the ". . . prohibition cannot be sustained."[49] For the school district to be able to justify the prohibition, it needed to show that to allow the students to exercise the forbidden right would ". . . materially and substantially interfere with the requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school."[50]

Generally speaking, as long as there is no substantial disruption, students can wear freedom buttons, black berets, and other insignia—all forms of symbolic speech. The Court in *Burnside* v. *Byars*, mindful of prior decisions, concluded that:

> [T]he liberty of expression guaranteed by the First Amendment can be abridged by state officials if their protection of legitimate state interests necessitates an invasion of free speech. The interest of the state in maintaining an educational system is a compelling one, giving rise to a balancing of First Amendment rights with the duty of the state to further and protect the public school system. The establishment of an educational program requires the formulation of rules and regulations necessary for the maintenance of an orderly program of classroom learning. In formulating regulations, including those pertaining to the discipline of school children, school officials have a wide latitude of

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[47] See Huffman and Trauth, *High School Students' Publication Rights and Prior Restraint*, 10 J.L. and Educ. 485 at 492–493 (1981).

[48] 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

[49] *Id.* at 504.

[50] *Id.* at 507.

> discretion. But the school is always bound by the requirement that the rules and regulations must be reasonable. It is not for us to consider whether such rules are wise or expedient but merely whether they are a reasonable exercise of the power and discretion of the school authorities.[51]

Thus, if the situation was such that the school board could ". . . reasonably forecast substantial disruption of or material interference with school activities . . . or intru[sions] into the school affairs or the lives of others . . ." then the board would be justified in "forecasting the harmful consequences. . . ."[52] On the other hand, courts have recognized that walkouts or boycotts, sit-ins, and even excessive noise can constitute a material or substantial disruption of the school and thus have ruled that school officials were justified in curtailing the symbolic speech.[53]

Freedom of assembly and associations—The First Amendment includes the right to peaceable assembly, including the right to freedom of association and petition for redress of grievances. Generally, students have the right to conduct meetings and circulate petitions as long as such activities do not "materially and substantially" conflict with the educational process. But, the right of students to organize student clubs has not been given similar protection. Courts have consistently upheld the right of school boards to deny recognition to social and secret student clubs. Typically, courts have ruled that secret organizations ". . . tend to engender an undemocratic spirit of caste to promote cliques, and to foster a contempt for school authority."[54] On the other hand, the right of students to join student clubs that advocate controversial beliefs but that have open membership has been protected by some courts, and school districts have been required to recognize such groups officially.[55] To deny such groups recognition, school officials must present clear evidence that the organizations would produce a substantial threat of disruption to the educational process.[56]

In order to maintain school discipline and to assure "safe schools," school officials may regulate the time and place of student meetings, speakers and assemblies, and the distribution of petitions. Typically, school board policies barring all outside speakers and assemblies have prevailed when challenged, unless school officials have acted arbitrarily or discriminated against certain groups. In *Wilson* v. *Chancellor*, a federal district court concluded that the school board's policy barring political speakers from the high school violated the First Amendment.

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[51] 363 F 2d 744 at 749 (1966)

[52] *Tinker v. Des Moines School Board*, 393 U.S. 503 at 514, 89 S.Ct. 733 at 740 (1969)

[53] See, e.g., *Tate v. Board of Education*, 453 F 2d 975 (1972) (boycott); *Gebert v. Hoffman*, 336 F Supp 694 (E.D. Pennsylvania, 1972) (sit-in); *McAlpine v. Reese*, 309 F Supp 136 (E.D. Michigan, 1970) (excessive noise).

[54] *Burkitt v. School District No. 1, Multnomah County*, 246 P 2d 566 at 567 (Oregon, 1952)

[55] See Edward L. Winn, "Legal Control of Student Extracurricular Activities," *School Law Bulletin*, Vol VII, No. 3, at 4 (July 1976)

[56] See *Dixon v. Beresh*, 361 F Supp 253 (E.D. Michigan, 1973)

> The board's only apparent reason for issuing the order which suppressed protected speech was to placate angry residents and taxpayers. The First Amendment forbids this; neither fear of voter reaction nor personal disagreement with views to be expressed justifies a suppression of free expression, at least in the absence of any reasonable fear of material and substantial interference with the educational process.[57]

Although the courts are willing to restrict the personal liberties included in the First Amendment in order to preserve "the educational process," they have repeatedly reiterated that schools must respect the First Amendment rights of students. One court expressed the judicial sentiment when it stated: "We have both compassion and understanding of the difficulties facing school administrators, but we cannot permit those conditions to suppress the First Amendment rights of individual students."[58]

Fourteenth Amendment provisions—As explained earlier, the Fourteenth Amendment is probably the most widely used amendment in school litigation because it directly pertains to actions by the states. The due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment prohibits states from depriving citizens of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. Typically, students have a state-created property right to an education because of state compulsory attendance laws.[59] Thus, when a student's right is deprived, challenging the adequacy of the procedures followed in taking away the property right is a due process issue. Due process challenges are common in school suspension and expulsion cases and in the placement of students who are handicapped.

The equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment provides in part that "no State shall . . . deny to any person within its jurisdiction, the equal protection of the laws." Prior to the Warren Supreme Court, the Supreme Court allowed state policies and laws to provide differential treatment of individuals as long as the bases for the distinctions bore only a rational relationship to a legitimate government objective. Under this standard, only if the challenged act(s) is clearly wrong, or is the use of arbitrary power and not an exercise of judgment, is the act invalid. When this standard is used, the state action usually prevails. In an attempt to afford greater individual protection, the Warren Court established what is commonly called in the legal profession the strict scrutiny test. Under this standard any government act (policy or statute) that racially discriminates against an individual, either for the purpose of providing differential treatment or for effecting a fundamental constitutional right, is strictly scrutinized by the courts, and evidence of a compelling government interest must be proven. Seldom do state actions involving a suspect class or a fundamental right meet the compelling interest standard.

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[57] 418 F Supp. 1358 at 1364 (D. Oregon, 1976).

[58] *Nitzberg* v. *Parks*, 525 F 2d 378 at 384 (1975).

[59] See *Brown* v. *Board of Education (I)*, 347 U.S. 483, 74 S.Ct. 686 (1954).

When the Supreme Court in 1973 ruled that education was not among the fundamental rights granted by the Constitution, the Court's majority announced that challenged state actions regarding education triggered only the rational basis equal protection test, unless a suspect classification (*e.g.*, alienage, race, nationality) was involved.[60] To identify a suspect classification, the Supreme Court has established a set of criteria that considers whether or not the classification is based on an immutable characteristic; whether or not the persons in the class are stigmatized; whether or not there has been a history of discrimination against the class; and whether or not the class is politically powerless. Thus far, the Court has not declared that classifications based on sex and handicaps are "suspect" and, therefore, subject to the strict scrutiny standard of review.

The Burger Court, while declining to increase the number of individual rights and reluctant to expand suspect classes, appears to have developed an intermediate standard—somewhere between the lenient rational bases and the stringent strict scrutiny standards. The intermediate standard requires (1) the classification to serve important government objectives and (2) the discriminatory acts to be substantially related to the achievement of the objectives.

The courts have recognized what educators have known for a long time to be a fact—that the individual needs of students require differences in "treatment." Valid classification schemes designed to tailor the educational experiences of students to meet individual differences are accepted as legitimate pedagogy. But, courts are sensitive to the bases for certain student classifications and to the procedures used to identify and assign students to particular classifications. Substantial litigation has focused on the extent to which school classifications preclude students from "equal educational opportunities." Most courts have interpreted "**equal educational opportunity**" as requiring school districts to take affirmative action to overcome the deficiencies of certain groups of students.[61] "Separate but equal" practices and procedures that "treat all students neutral" no longer satisfy the requirements of the Fourteenth Amendment.

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[60] *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriquez*, 411 U.S. 1, 93 S.Ct. 1278 (1973). See *supra* note 1.

Controlling Classroom Behavior

If a student behaves disruptively in the classroom, makes little progress in academic work, and usually fails to accomplish anything of significance, who is to blame—the student, the student's parents, the teacher, or the community in general? Certainly, the student's broken home, the community surroundings, and the associations with peers contribute to the student's behavior in school. But, most educators would also admit that they are responsible for at least some of the student's behavior. Often the way the teacher responds to the student is the major determinant of the student's success or failure within the classroom. Frequently, vocational teachers observe that a student who behaves very disruptively in one class may respond well in another class. Obviously, something within the two classroom environments causes the different behavior. By attending to appropriate behavior, by formulating clearly defined performance objectives, by altering instructional activities, and by initiating contingency teaching-learning experiences, a teacher may be able to modify the behaviors of even the most disruptive students. But, even though good teaching will eliminate most classroom behavior problems, that "kids will be kids," a few may accurately be called school delinquents, and some may be termed incorrigible.[62] How educators respond to inappropriate behavior has become a matter for the courts to review.

THE COURTS' ROLE IN SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

Even though the Supreme Court has clearly stated that students do not shed their constitutional rights at the schoolhouse, including their rights to both substantive and procedural due process, federal and state courts have generally been reluctant in student discipline issues to substitute their judgment for that of the school boards.[63] The Court in *Donaldson* v. *the Board of*

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[61] See *supra* note 3

[62] See, *e.g.*, *Brown* v. *Board of Education (I)*, 347 U.S. 483, 74 S.Ct. 686 (1954) (see *supra* note 53); *Della Casa* v. *Gaffney*, No. 171673 (Cal. Super Ct. 1973) (exclusion of female students from traditionally male vocational classes [*e.g.*, auto body and auto mechanics] is a denial of equal protection guarantees); *Hickey* v. *Black River Board of Education*, No. 73-889 (N.D. Ohio, 1973) (home economics and industrial arts classes must be available on equal terms to male and female students); *Hobson* v. *Hansen*, 269 F.Supp. 401 (D.D.C., 1967) (Court ruled that ability tracking as used in Washington, D.C., was unconstitutional. But, tracking systems per se were not ruled unconstitutional).

[63] See *supra* note 7.

Education for Danville School District No. 118 summarized the judicial system's reluctance when it said:

> School discipline is an area which courts enter with great hesitation and reluctance—and rightly so. School officials are trained and paid to determine what form of punishment best addresses a particular student's transgressions. They are in a far better position than is a black-robed judge to decide what to do with a disobedient child at school.[64]

On the other hand, most courts have not been reluctant to intervene when a student has been abused. Some courts do not believe that students have any right to constitutional protection from punishment and seem to suggest that more discipline in public schools is needed.[65] One circuit court has ruled that the proper forum for changing school rules is not the courtroom but the school board.[66] Courts have refused to hold school officials to the rules governing police actions, primarily because teachers are perceived to be benevolent toward their students, not adversaries as are the police with criminal suspects.[67] While the Court in *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.* rejected the state's position that students have a diminished right of privacy due to the special school-student relationship, the Court favored the position that there is great need to maintain discipline in public schools. In a six to three decision, the Supreme Court ruled: "The special need for an immediate response to behavior that threatens either the safety of school children and teachers or the educational process itself justifies the Court in exempting school searches from the warrant and probable cause requirement.[68]

Many states' statutes protect school personnel, both certificated and noncertificated, from liability in administering as much force as is necessary and reasonable to control a student's behavior that is threatening physical injury to others, to quiet a disturbance that is endangering the safety of other persons, and in self-defense.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Generally speaking, the courts see teachers standing ***in loco parentis*** to students under their supervision and as such they have not only the right but also the duty to act on the behalf of students. The broad powers flowing from the *in loco parentis* doctrine often allow educators to get by with practices that would be unconstitutional in other settings, if not a school.[69] But, even though teachers standing *in loco parentis* have some latitude in disciplining students, they can be held liable for assault and battery if they administer corporal punishment to students.[70]

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[64] 98 Ill. App 3d 438 at 439, 424 N.E.2d 737 at 739, 53 Ill. December 946 at 948.

[65] See, e.g., *Fisher* v. *Burkburnett Independent School District*, 419 F.Supp. 1200 at 1201 (N.D. Texas, 1976); *Petrey* v. *Flaugher*, 505 F.Supp. 1087 (E.D. Kentucky, 1981).

[66] *Mitchell* v. *Board of Trustees of Oxford Municipal Separate School District*, 625 F.2d 660 (5th Cir., 1980).

[67] See, e.g., *Racine Unifield School District* v. *Thompson*, 107 Wis. App. 657, 321 N.W.2d 334, 4 E.L.R. 1294 (1982).

[68] *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.*, 105 S.Ct. 733 at 748 (1985).

Interestingly, on the one hand, the Supreme Court seems to uphold the right of school personnel to administer corporal punishment, while at the same time ruling that students are persons and that they do not shed their constitutional rights at the schoolhouse gate.[71] In *Ingraham* v. *Wright*, the Supreme Court ruled that corporally punishing students in school is not cruel and unusual punishment as defined in the Eighth Amendment.[72] The Court also stated that a hearing was not required before reasonable corporal punishment could be administered and that parental consent was not necessary before the corporal punishment could be administered. The Court concluded elaborate procedures to protect due process rights would dilute the purpose of corporal punishment. It ruled that the threat of civil and perhaps even criminal action should the corporal punishment be extreme and/or result in serious injury was sufficient to protect the student's due process rights.[73] The court said: ". . . disciplinary corporal punishment does not per se violate the public school child's substantive due process rights." But, in *Hall* v. *Tawney* the Court held that corporal punishment that is "so brutal, demeaning, and harmful as literally to shock the conscience of the court" is subject to redress in federal court under the Eighth Amendment.[74] In essence, the Supreme Court has concluded per its ruling in *Ingraham* v. *Wright*, and coupled by the lower federal court's holding in *Hall* v. *Tawney*, issues regarding the use of corporal punishment should generally be handled by state courts under the provisions of existing state laws.

Many states have enacted corporal punishment regulations. In Ohio, for example, the state's corporal punishment law has been found to be constitutional by the Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals. Up until 1985, when the state legislature enacted SB 174, local school boards could not establish rules denying school personnel the right to administer corporal punishment. The new law allows local school boards to decide if corporal punishment will be included in the district's disciplinary policy.[75] Some states prohibit corporal punishment by statute.[76] In still other states that permit corporal punishment, rules stipulate how and when corporal punishment may be used.[77]

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[69] See, *e.g.*, *Stern* v. *New Haven Community Schools*, 529 F.Supp. 31 (D.C.E.D. Michigan, 1981). The court upheld the school district's power to install two-way mirrors in the school's lavatories so as to allow administrators to observe student drug exchanges. The court in balancing the interests of the community against the privacy rights of the students found the community interests more compelling.

[70] See, *e.g.*, *Johnson* v. *Horace Mann Mutual Ins. Co.*, 241 So.2d 588 (La. App., 1970). A Louisiana appeals court awarded the student $1,000 in damages for pain, suffering, and humiliation. Generally, before the courts will convict a teacher of criminal assault, the state prosecutor must prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the corporal punishment was excessive and unnecessary to maintain school discipline.

[71] Schools are still the only institutions permitting corporal punishment.

[72] 430 U.S. 651, 97 S.Ct. 1401 (Florida, 1977).

[73] Damages are sought in civil suits, while criminal charges are prosecuted by the state.

[74] 621 F.2d 607 (4th Cir., 1980).

In recent years, especially after *Baker* v. *Owen*, those school boards permitted by state statute to use corporal punishment have established policies regulating its use.[78] Many require that (1) the infliction of corporal punishment must be witnessed by another certified person; (2) corporal punishment can only be used after other discipline measures have been taken; (3) the student must be told in advance what behaviors will cause a spanking; (4) detailed records of the incidents must be kept; and (5) parents must be informed when their child has been spanked. Ohio's statute requires each school district, at the end of each school year, to submit to the state board of education a "corporal punishment summary." The summary must include (1) the number of times corporal punishment was used in each school within the district, (2) the violations for which corporal punishment was used, (3) "a breakdown of the number of times corporal punishment was inflicted by the age, sex, and grade level . . . ," and (4) "a breakdown of the number of pupils who received corporal punishment more than once by the number of times corporal punishment was inflicted."[79]

One court has ruled that whether or not the corporal punishment was reasonable can be ascertained by reviewing the entire situation existing at the time and by examining whether or not the corporal punishment created a substantial risk of serious physical harm.[80] Generally, courts in determining the reasonableness of the punishment consider the student's age and past behavior, the nature of the offense, the instrument used, the gravity of the injury inflicted, and the motivation of the school employee administering the corporal punishment.[81]

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[75] Am. Sub SB 174, amending Section 3313.20, *Ohio Revised Code*.

[76] See, *e.g.*, Massachusetts and New Jersey prohibit corporal punishment by state statute; Maryland prohibits corporal punishment by a rule promulgated by the State Board of Education. In most states where corporal punishment is permissible, local school boards are allowed to develop policies and procedures that restrict its administration.

[77] See, *e.g.*, *California Education Code* permits the use of corporal punishment but only after prior written approval of the student's parent or guardian. In addition, the California statute requires local school boards to inform parents that corporal punishment cannot be used without their prior consent.

[78] *Baker* v. *Owen*, 395 F Supp. 294 (NC, 1975), affirmed 423 U.S. 907, 96 S.Ct. 210 (1975). This court established procedural requirements for administering corporal punishment. The Supreme Court affirmed the opinion without delivering a written opinion.

[79] Am. Sub. SB 174, amending Section 3319.41 (B), *Ohio Reserved Code*.

[80] *State* v. *Hoover*, 5 Ohio App 3d 207, 450 N.E.2d 710 (1982).

[81] *Hale* v. *Pringle*, 562 F Supp. 598 (M.D. Alabama, 1983).

SUSPENSIONS AND EXPULSIONS

Although the courts have uniformly upheld the rights of educators to use suspensions and expulsions as disciplinary measures, they have required that due process procedures be followed to assure that students are fairly and impartially treated. Even though the procedural details for suspension and expulsion are commonly included in state statutes and school board regulations, the courts have ruled that various procedural safeguards are constitutionally necessary to guarantee students at least minimum due process under the Fourteenth Amendment. Some courts have ruled that "the quantum and quality of procedural due process to be afforded a student varies with the seriousness of the punishment to be imposed."[82] Once a school district establishes suspension and expulsion procedures, the courts will require that they be followed.[83]

Suspension.—The Supreme Court in *Ingraham* v. *Wright* distinguished a student's due process from due process in other cases when the student was corporally punished after being suspended.[84] The Court noted that being denied the right to go to school was a more severe penalty and thus necessitated more procedural safeguards. The Court has held that the right to attend school is a "property" right under the federal Constitution and cannot be taken away by the state without a hearing. In *Goss* v. *Lopez*, the Supreme Court found an Ohio statute to be unconstitutional in that it denied students in a suspension situation their due process rights protected by the Fourteenth Amendment.[85] The Court held that students facing short-term suspension of 10 days or less (1) must be told orally or in writing of the district's intention to suspend and informed as to the reasons for the suspension; (2) are entitled to know the nature of the evidence the accusers possess; and (3) must be given the opportunity in an informal hearing to explain their behavior. For suspensions of less than five days, the informal hearing may be held immediately after the written notice is given to a student. The school district is not required to allow the student to have legal counsel, to confront and cross-examine witnesses introducing the evidence, nor need the student be allowed to call witnesses to support the actions. Suspensions longer than five or six days should be followed by an impartial hearing on the merits of the suspension. The Supreme Court's holding did suggest that allowing the student to "confront" and "interview other witnesses" may be required in "more difficult cases."[86] The Court clearly stated that the informal hearing needed to be more than a "ritual devoid of substance." In emergency cases, the notice and hearing requirements may be temporarily waived so the student may be removed swiftly. But, a hearing must be held as soon as possible after the student has been removed. In no case can the hearing be more than 72 hours after the student has been removed. The hearing must follow the procedure established for either suspensions or expulsions, depending on the probability of which action will be followed. If a student is disciplined by being removed from a curricular, co-curricular, or extracurricular activity for less than 24 hours, and suspension is not contemplated, the discipline is considered as a "normal disciplinary procedure" and the due process requirements do not attach.

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[82] *Pervis* v. *La Marque Independent District*, 466 F.2d 1054 at 1057 (5th Cir., 1972).

[83] See, *e.g.*, *Galveston Independent School District* v. *Boothe*, 590 S.W.2d 553 (Tex. Civ. App., 1979). The court reversed the expulsion decision because the student did not have proper notice that his behavior would result in expulsion. The student was expelled for possession of marijuana in his car, which was not parked on school property. The school's rule did not state that such behavior off school property was grounds for expulsion.

[84] 430 U.S. 651, 97 S.Ct. 1401 (Florida, 1977).

[85] 419 U.S. 565, 95 S.Ct. 729 (1975). In *C.J.* v. *School Board of Broward County*, 438 So2d 87 (Fla. App., 1983), the Supreme Court said that it would allow the school board's policy only on the condition that it "toe the mark" and be punctilious in its language. If a board does ". . . not dot all [its] 'i's' and cross all [its] 't's'," then the Court would be unwilling to uphold the board's policy.

Expulsion.—The Supreme Court has held that any student who is faced with expulsion is entitled to full due process guarantees. Based on the Court's ruling that suspension is removing the student for 10 days or less, simply by implication, expulsion is a removal for more than 10 days.[87] In such cases, the school board (1) must provide written notice of the expected expulsion; (2) must hold an impartial hearing; (3) must allow the student to be represented by counsel; and (4) must make the right to appeal the decision available to the student.

Although students have due process rights, one court has ruled that the Fifth Amendment right to remain silent, set forth in the commonly called *Miranda* rule, is not applicable to student expulsion situations.[88] In *Gonzales* v. *Mc Euen*, the Court ruled that students faced with expulsion had the right to counsel, to confrontation, and to cross-examination of witnesses, and the right to introduce evidence on their own behalf.[89] Generally, state laws do not allow a student to be expelled beyond the end of the academic year in which the violation occurred unless the expulsion is for behavior that took place near the close of the school year.

Typically, in both expulsion and suspension decisions, the student or the student's parent, or guardian, has the right to appeal to the board of education. After the administrative procedures as required in the state statute have been exhausted, an appeal can be filed in a state trial court. In addition to appealing the board of education's decision to the board and to other administrative law channels, which may include the state board of education, and appealing the decision in a state trial court, a student or the student's representatives may appeal the constitutionality of the discipline and the procedures followed in a federal court under Section 1983.

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[86] *Id.* at 584, 95 S.Ct. 729 at ______

[87] *Goss* v. *Lopez*, 419 U.S. 565, 95 S.Ct. 729 (1975).

[88] *Frierott* v. *Board of Education of Vandalia Butler Schools*, Case No. CA 6629 (App. Montgomery City, 1980).

[89] 435 F.Supp. 460 at 467 (E.D. California, 1977).

Generally speaking, case law clearly speaks to the courts' desire to protect the right of school officials to discipline students in the manner they deem appropriate. "For the Court to inject itself into the manner in which school administrators wish to discipline school children would constitute a significant intrusion by the Court into an area of primary educational responsibility."[90]

SEARCH AND SEIZURE

After many years of debate, the Supreme Court ruled in *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.* that public school officials may conduct searches of students under standards less demanding than those required in the Fourth Amendment.[91] This case involved a 14-year-old girl, T.L.O., and her friend, whom a math teacher found holding lighted cigarettes in the girls' restroom. Although the school permitted smoking in specific areas, the school's restrooms were off-limits. The teacher "marched" the girls to an assistant principal's office. T.L.O.'s friend admitted she was smoking. As punishment she was required to attend a smoking clinic for three days. T.L.O. denied she was smoking in the restroom and claimed she did not smoke at all. The assistant principal asked T.L.O. to open her purse; when she complied, he found a package of cigarettes in her purse. He also observed cigarette rolling paper. Thus, he continued looking in her purse and found (1) a metal pipe used to smoke marijuana, (2) a plastic bag containing some marijuana and (3) evidence that T.L.O. was probably selling marijuana. After making these discoveries, he called T.L.O.'s mother and the police. At the police station, T.L.O. admitted she was involved in selling marijuana to other students. The police charged her with possession of marijuana with the intent to distribute. T.L.O. was suspended from school for 10 days.[92]

In juvenile court, T.L.O. moved to have the criminal complaint dismissed and to suppress the evidence taken by the assistant principal from her purse. Her motions were denied, and she was placed on one year's probation. She appealed the decision and the superior court, appellate division, affirmed the juvenile court decision. The New Jersey Supreme Court reversed the lower court decision and ruled in favor of suppressing all evidence obtained by the assistant principal.[93] The New Jersey Supreme Court stated that although it believed that school searches should be under different criteria when used by school officials than when used by law enforcement officials, in this case the assistant principal had no reasonable grounds to believe the purse contained cigarettes. The mere desire on the part of the assistant principal for proof to contradict T.L.O.'s claim that she was not smoking in the restroom and that she did not smoke did not justify searching her purse.[94] The state of New Jersey appealed the case to the U.S. Supreme Court. Justice White wrote the Court's majority opinion, which focused on the "proper standard for assessing the legality of searches conducted by public school officials and the application of that standard to the facts in this case."[95] The Court concluded that neither a search warrant nor "probable cause" is required before a public school official can search a student. The legality of a search in a school setting depends on the "reasonableness, under all the circumstances of the search."[96]

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[90] *Rhodus* v. *Dumiller*, 552 F.Supp 425 at 428 (1972).

[91] 105 S.Ct. 733 (1985). See *supra* note 3.

[92] *Id.* It was not clear if T.L.O. was suspended before or after going to the police station. Three days of the suspension was for smoking in the girls' restroom and seven days was for possession of marijuana.

To determine "reasonableness," the Supreme Court held that a two-pronged test must be used: (1) whether or not "reasonable grounds for suspecting the search will turn up evidence that a student has violated or is violating either the law or the rules of the school" and (2) whether or not the "measures adopted are intrusive in light of the age and sex of the student and the nature of the infraction."[97] The Court went on to say that school searches are permissible in scope "when the measures adopted are reasonably related to the objectives of the search and are not excessively intrusive. . . ."[98]

In ruling the search was legal, the Court clearly did not sanction unjustified or unnecessary intrusive searches.[99] The two-pronged test alerts school personnel to the fact that their authority is not unrestrained. The decision is highly controversial. Most legal writers concur with the conclusion that the circumstances of the school setting establish extraordinary government interests sufficient to justify an exception to the requirement of a warrant before a search is conducted. But, they, as did Justice Brennan in a dissenting opinion, believe that under no circumstances should a standard less than probable cause be allowed. Justice Brennan, joined by Justice Marshall, stated "the majority opinion sanctions school officials to conduct full-scale searches on a 'reasonableness' standard whose only definite content is that it is not the same test as the 'probable cause' standard found in the text of the Fourth Amendment."[100] Although the decision establishes little "new" law, since it simply affirms the majority of lower federal court decisions, the Supreme Court has now spoken on the issue. Several issues were expressly left unresolved. These include: (1) students' right of privacy, (2) standards for searches of lockers and desks, (3) the use of dogs in school searches, (4) school board liability for illegal searches, and (5) the use of the fruits of an unlawful search in expulsion-suspension hearings.[101]

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[93] *State in re T.L.O.*, 94 N.J. 331, 463 A.2d 934 (1983).

[94] *Id.* at 343, 463 A.2d 934 at 940 (1983).

[95] *New Jersey* v. *T.L.O.*, 105 S.Ct. 733 at 736 (1985).

[96] *Id.* at 743–744.

[97] *Id.* at 744.

[98] *Id.* at 742.

[99] *Id.* at 744.

Student Conduct at School-related/sponsored Activities

Generally speaking, courts have taken the stand that schools can regulate student behavior at functions that are school-related and/or school-sponsored. In such cases, courts have, for example, upheld a student's (or students') being suspended from school for conduct that interfered with the safe operation of a school bus, for disobeying rules while on a field trip, and for drinking at a state-wide school tournament.[102] In some instances, courts have even said that schools can discipline a student for behavior that did not occur in a school-related activity if such misconduct had a "direct and immediate effect on the discipline or general welfare of the school."[103]

Other Forms of Discipline

DETENTION

Courts have upheld school policies that impose reasonable detention for misbehavior. It appears that no court has ruled that before a detention can be assigned, a student must be given due process of law as required for suspension and expulsion.[104]

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[100] *Id.* at 750.

[101] See *supra* note 4.

[102] See, *e.g.*, *Clements* v. *Board of Trustees of Sheridan City School District*, 585 P.2d 197 (Wyoming, 1978). The Court ruled that "It is generally accepted that school authorities may discipline pupils for out-of-school conduct having a direct and immediate effect on the discipline or general welfare of the school." *Id.* at 204–205.

[103] *Caldwell* v. *Cannady*, 340 F.Supp. 835 at 838 (N.D. Texas, 1972). The Court ruled that the school district could prohibit students from possessing and using dangerous drugs in school, in a school-related activity, and even in a non-school–related event.

[104] The Court in *Fielder* v. *Board of Education*, 346 F.Supp. 722 (Nebraska, 1972), said there was no constitutional issue at stake in detaining a student in order to make up lost in-class time.

ACADEMIC SANCTIONS

Courts do not usually review teachers' grading decisions. However, any "blanket" policy for lowering of grades without giving students a chance to be heard "is suspect" and apt to be court challenged.[105] For example, assigning a zero for each day missed, or lowering a grade by one letter after three class meetings have been missed, is "suspect," since this brings automatic **academic sanction**. Because there may be extenuating circumstances, students must be allowed to explain to the teacher the reasons for the absences. A New Jersey administrative law judge found that a student's rights were prejudiced when he was given a zero for truancy and the zero was weighed against his results on a make-up exam.[106]

Courts have ruled that prohibiting a student who has completed course credit requirements for graduation from receiving the diploma because of improper behavior is not permissible. The issuing of high school diplomas is considered a ministerial duty over which school officials have no discretionary control. But, if evidence exists that a disruption may occur, a student may be barred from participating in the graduation exercises as punishment.[107]

School Rules and Regulations About Student Conduct

It appears that the language of the school's policies will determine whether or not the courts will uphold the authority of boards of education to control conduct at non-school–related instances. In setting rules and regulations to control student conduct on and off campus, in school-related or non-school–sponored events, districts need to take steps to (1) acquaint all students with the policy, (2) be sure the language of the policy is clear, and (3) inform students of the penalties that will be imposed if the policy is violated. School rules and regulations that have no valid educational purpose because they are not rationally related to the achievement of the educational purposes of the school and those that infringe on any protected constitutional right are certain to be invalidated by the courts.

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[105] See "Grade Reduction, Academic Dismissal and the Courts," *A Legal Memorandum*, Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, October 1977.

[106] *Minorics* v. *Board of Education*, N.J. Comm. of Educ. Decisions (1972). See, *e.g.*, *Hamer* v. *Board of Education, of Township High School District No. 113*, 383 N.E.2d 231 (Ill App., 1978). The Court ruled the school's grade-lowering penalty policy was not related to valid discipline objectives. The Court went on to say that the school board had the power to enact disciplinary regulations but that because of the importance of grades to the student's future employment and educational opportunities, the board did not have the authority to use academic sanctions for disciplinary reasons.

[107] A New York court said that because there was no evidence that a disruption would occur, the student could not be barred from graduation exercises "without due process." The Court said that ". . . such a means of punishment may not be an appropriate regulatory act by the board of education." *Ladson* v. *Board of Education of Union Free School District No. 9*, 323 N.Y.S.2d 545 at 546 (Sup.Ct., Nassau County, 1971).

WHAT KIND OF BEHAVIOR RULES WILL THE COURTS SUPPORT?

Although courts have held that rules including such language as "willful disobedience" and "intentional disruption" were sufficiently clear as to be enforceable, "insubordination" and "disorderly" have been upheld only if due process had been given the student when the punishment was determined.[108] Some courts have declared a rule invalid for vagueness. In the case of *People* v. *Barksdale*, a California court expressed vagueness to exist when "[a] statute which either forbids or requires doing of an act in terms so vague that men of common intelligence must necessarily guess at its meaning and differ as to its application violates first essentials of due process."[109] Also, courts have held that school rules that are overly broad are not enforceable.[110] In addition, any rule that "automatically" penalizes a student is per se suspect (in and of itself), because it is possible that at an impartial hearing the student might be able to show cause why the actions were taken and why the behavior was as it was.

Generally, courts will uphold school board rules and policies that are found to be reasonable, not arbitrary. In addition, to support a district's behavior rules, courts require that there be a connection between the behavior and the sanction. Simply stated, the punishment must fit the crime. For example, the Court in *Dorsey* v. *Bale* found the school's rule that school work could not be made up for unexcused absences, including disciplinary suspension days, and the deduction of 5 percentage points from the nine-week grade for each day missed, to be ultra vires—outside the authority of the school district. The Court determined the sanction to be ultra vires in that it was additional punishment for the offense that originally resulted in a suspension.[111]

But, recently, a Connecticut court rejected the ultra vires and unconstitutional claims of a student that a school policy that withheld course credit in a year-long course in which the student was absent from more than 24 class periods. In addition to the absence limit, the student's course grade was subject to a fine point reduction for each unapproved absence after the first. Because the sanction only applied to unexcused absences, it was not determined by the court to be "double punishment" as in *Dorsey* v. *Bale*.[112]

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[108] See, e.g., *Murray* v. *West Baton Rouge Parish School Board*, 472 F.2d 438 (Louisiana, 1973); *Reid* v. *Nyquist*, 319 N.Y.S.2d 53 (1971).

[109] 503 P.2d 257 at ____ (1972).

[110] *Dunn* v. *Tyler Independent School District*, 327 F.Supp. 528 (Texas, 1971).

[111] 521 S.W.2d 76 (Kentucky, 1975). In the recent case of *Katzman* v. *Cumberland Valley School District*, 479 A.2d 671 (Pa.Commw.Ct., 1984), the court held that the action of the board in reducing the student's grades would result in a clear misrepresentation of the student's scholastic achievement, misrepresentation of achievement was held to be both improper and illegal.

Questions and Activities

1. What legal topics have direct impact on vocational education teachers and their students?
2. Explain the importance of case decisions in establishing law.
3. Enumerate basic student rights that must be recognized in the classroom.
4. Explain how teachers act *in loco parentis* when working with students.
5. Explain how teachers can legally administer corporal punishment to students.
6. Explain how schools and teacher-coordinators can legally regulate student behavior at school functions. How does this apply to student organizations?
7. To what extent do state legislatures have control over public education? How does this control apply to cooperative education?
8. Recall your study of training agreements and training plans. Are these legally binding documents? Discuss. If you need to do so, refer to Chapter 11 on training agreements and training plans.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

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[112] *Campbell* v. *Board of Education of New Milford*, 475 A.2d 289 (Connecticut, 1984).

SECTION FOUR

Application of the Systems Approach

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION FOUR

Sections One, Two, and Three dealt with the various components of the systems approach to improving instruction. Section One described the theory of the ***strategy*** (goals), Section Two described the ***structure*** (curriculum) of using the work environment as a learning experience, and Section Three described the ***system*** of improving instruction.

Section Four focuses on the various fields of cooperative education that utilize the systems approach: (1) agricultural occupations, (2) business occupations, (3) health occupations, (4) home economics occupations, (5) marketing occupations, and (6) trade and industrial occupations. Organized and operated according to the underlying concepts and principles outlined in Sections Two and Three, the cooperative plan of instruction can be used within a program of instruction in each of these areas at the secondary and postsecondary levels. However, the general techniques described in the previous chapters may need to be modified because each occupational field has certain unique characteristics. These characteristics are derived from various factors, among them, (1) the number of direct training personnel found in the occupations, (2) the degree to which the occupations demand cognitive versus manipulative or affective skills, (3) the degree to which learning is best accomplished in school rather than on the job, and (4) the extent to which the mores of the occupations are adopted.

17

The Plan in Agricultural Occupations

In a training station where the student-learner will be dealing with farmers, it is wise for him/her to have had an agricultural background and/or some 4-H experience.

KEY CONCEPT: *A training station in agricultural cooperative education can be on a farm, in an agribusiness, in a nursery, in a food processing plant, at a state park, etc.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify and list appropriate training station and career objectives available in agriculture.
- Understand how to develop an appropriate curriculum for a local plan in cooperative occupational education for agricultural occupations.
- List the major sources of instructional materials for agricultural occupations education.
- Understand how to devise appropriate training plans for students at various training stations.
- Evaluate other student-learners in the classroom and on the job.
- Describe student-learner benefits gained from membership in the FFA.

Research and investigation have revealed that in addition to farming, there are many other occupations in which agricultural competencies are required. Such occupations may be classified broadly into two categories: (1) nonfarm agricultural occupations in which the agricultural competencies are of primary importance and other competencies are of secondary importance and (2) non-agricultural occupations in which some agricultural competencies are needed. Much research is needed to distinguish between the two so that the proper combination of instructional activities may be devised.

Agribusiness Occupations

Agribusiness occupations are those nonfarm agricultural occupations in business and industry in which agricultural competencies are primary. Some are allied to marketing, such as those found in feed and fertilizer sales, elevators, farm produce and livestock brokerage, farm machinery sales, and garden and horticultural sales. Others are allied to industrial occupations, such as those found in farm machinery repair.

Through preparatory courses the student receives a background in the various areas of agricultural science, horticulture, and agricultural technology. In the twelfth grade, the student is offered supervised experience in a nonfarm agricultural occupation. In some occupations the experience might be approximately half-days for the school year, as is common in the other five cooperative education plans. The student-learner is enrolled in an agricultural class, taught by the agricultural teacher-coordinator, in which directly related instruction is given. Electives might be courses in agriculture, business, marketing, or industrial education, depending on the nature of the student's occupational choice.

Agricultural Occupations

Agricultural occupations clusters are composed of groups of related courses or units of subject matter that are organized for carrying on learning experiences concerned with preparation for or upgrading in occupations requiring knowledge of and skills in agricultural subjects. The functions of agricultural production, agricultural supplies, agricultural mechanization, agricultural products (processing), ornamental horticulture, forestry, agricultural resources, and the services related thereto are emphasized in the instruction designed to provide opportunities for students to prepare for or to improve their competencies in agricultural occupations. An agricultural occupation may include one or any combination of these functions.

The agriculture NCES Code 01.00 includes the following clusters of occupations.[1]

01.01	Agricultural Business and Management
01.02	Agricultural Mechanics
01.03	Agricultural Production
01.04	Agricultural Products and Processing
01.05	Agricultural Services and Supplies
01.06	Horticulture
01.99	Agribusiness and Agricultural Production, Other

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION PLANS

An agricultural cooperative education plan can occur in one of two ways: (1) in a small school having only one agriculture teacher, only one option area in agriculture (*i.e.*, horticulture, agribusiness, agriculture production, etc.) would be offered at the junior and senior levels, with cooperative education offered during the senior year or (2) in a larger school having two or more agriculture teachers, several options might be offered, and seniors in cooperative education could pursue employment in basically any agricultural field.

The first situation is unlikely, since cooperative education for agricultural students *only* is not feasible in a one-teacher program. In this case, the small number of agricultural students who want cooperative education enroll in interrelated (diversified) cooperative plan.

An example of a schedule of a student enrolled in the cooperative agricultural education plan at a medium-sized secondary school, in Paris, Illinois, is shown as follows.[2]

Class Schedule

1st Hour	Agricultural Business Management
2nd Hour	English IV
3rd Hour	Government/Contemporary Problems
4th Hour	Released time to go to the training station on the farm as farm worker, livestock laborer, a paid worker as a student-learner. (See the training plan, Figure 17-5.)

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[1] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*, Vocational–Technical Education Programs, National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, pp. 181–182. Consult your state department of vocational education for a more detailed list.

[2] Courtesy, Michael Gray, Coordinator of Agricultural Cooperative Education, Paris High School, Paris, Illinois.

An example of how a large school system has organized the vocational agriculture program is that of Omaha, Nebraska. In the Omaha High Schools a four-year vocational program in agribusiness is offered in the following sequence of courses and experiences.

Grade 9 : Agribusiness I–II
Grade 10: Agribusiness III–IV or V–VI or VII–VIII or IX–X
Grade 11: Agribusiness III–IV or V–VI or VII–VIII or IX–X
Grade 12: Agribusiness XI–XII and Agribusiness Laboratory I–II or any Agribusiness course offered during the 10th and 11th grades

Agribusiness III–IV (grades 10, 11, and 12)—offers instruction in the areas of soil development, fertility, and conservation. Also included are activities such as land judging, surveying, and environmental control.

Agribusiness V–VI (grades 10, 11, and 12)—offers instruction in the selection, feeding, breeding, grading, identification, and evaluation of animals.

Agribusiness VII–VIII (grades 10, 11, and 12)—offers instruction in the study of crops, lawn and turf management, greenhouse and nursery operations.

Agribusiness IX–X (grades 10, 11, and 12)—offers instruction in arc and oxyacetylene welding and cutting. Other learning activities include tractor and machinery operations, safety, and maintenance.

Agribusiness XI–XII (grade 12)—taken concurrently with Agribusiness Laboratory I–II. Offers instruction in areas such as job application, employer-employee relations, sales, taxes, insurance, and business operations.

Agribusiness Laboratory I–II (grade 12)—offered under the cooperative plan and taken concurrently with Agribusiness XI–XII. Students spend a minimum of 15 hours a week in supervised on-the-job training stations in cooperative local businesses. Agribusiness XI–XII is the related instruction under the cooperative plan.

Under the cooperative plan, students are typically placed in on-the-job training stations in grade 12, as illustrated in the Omaha example. Studies show that most agricultural occupations of the future will be in the area of products and services, not in the area of production agriculture. Thus, appropriate training stations for cooperative agricultural education include florists, fertilizer dealers, farms, implement dealers, nurseries, processing companies, agricultural marketing organizations, and so on.[3] Bona-fide cooperative education plans in agriculture will include paid employment in approved on-the-job training stations under qualified job supervisors and certified teachers.

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[3] Lloyd J. Phipps and Edward W. Osborne, *Handbook on Agricultural Education in the Public Schools*, Fifth Edition, Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1988.

Related Instruction

THE NATURE OF INSTRUCTION

In cooperative education the workplace is the place where the technical skills, merchandise knowledge, and human relations particular to the organization are to be taught and learned. The classroom instruction must teach the technical information related to the organization as well as the general information required of all workers. For this purpose the local board of education purchases and places necessary technical information in the related classroom; the coordinator organizes the technical materials; and the student-learners meet daily for one period or two periods (according to the plan adopted) for the express purpose of assimilating the information. It is at this point that the coordinator assumes the task of guiding and directing the individualized study of each student-learner.

When planning related instruction for student-learners, the teacher-coordinator should consider teacher-learner objectives and instructional methods, materials, and classroom facilities.

OBJECTIVES OF INSTRUCTION

In cooperative agricultural education, there are three areas of instructional objectives. The ***first area of objectives*** emphasizes the development of information, concepts, and attitudes that are basic to all agricultural occupations and that the student-learners use to advance successfully toward their career objectives. These instructional objectives are sought primarily in group meetings of the class devoted to what is known as general related instruction.

The ***second area of objectives*** stresses the student-learner's building of occupational skills and knowledges that are applicable to the particular initial job in which he/she is placed. Each student's individual learning outcomes are stated in the training plan outline, which identifies the job tasks, functions, and processes in which the student-learner will be trained. Some of these objectives are accomplished by in-school instruction through group study by student-learners who have common needs by being in the same type of agricultural business or service establishment. Some of these learning outcomes are emphasized in the informal individual conferences of student-learner and teacher-coordinator and/or training station sponsor.

The ***third area of objectives*** deals with the improvement of the student's general education. The teacher-coordinator should certainly contribute to the improvement of the student's ability to read, write, compute, and communicate.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS, MATERIALS, AND FACILITIES

The instructional methods in cooperative agricultural education plans evolve from the two types of instruction necessary for developing vocational competence. These are **general related instruction** and **specific related instruction**—general and technical.

General related instruction.—The term "general related instruction" refers to instruction in topics considered of common importance to all workers in agricultural occupations.[+] In some cooperative agricultural education plans, one period per day from the two-hour block is devoted to such instruction. Group instruction methods, with emphasis upon readings, lectures, and discussions, are appropriate for general related instruction, which is primarily conceptual and attitudinal in nature.

While the topics in the general related class may vary from program to program, the following topics may be considered common.

Units of Study

- School and Community Relations
  - The Cooperative Agricultural Training Plan
  - What Makes a Good Trainee?
  - School Rules and Regulations
  - Responsibilities of the Student-Learner
  - Grooming and Dressing for the Job
  - Choosing a Means of Earning a Living
  - Getting a Job and Growing in It
  - Job Versus Training Station
  - Employer-Employee Relations

Recurring Topics

- Personal Development
  - Understanding Ourselves
  - Keeping Out of Trouble
  - Character and Personality
  - Successful Job Relations
  - Practice of Manners
  - Effective Study Habits
  - Budgeting Your Income
  - Saving and Investing
  - Credit and Money Management
  - Understanding Contracts
  - Consumer Legal Problems
  - Using Negotiable Instruments
  - Planning Your Career

[+] Many state departments have developed guides and course outlines for general related instruction. Contact your state department or a teacher-educator in your state for some suggestions.

Units of Study

- Paying for Services Through Taxes
- Private Insurance Plans
- Social Security
- Legal Regulations for Young Workers
- Labor Unions
- Wage and Hour Records
- Filing Your Income Tax Report

Career Opportunities in Agriculture

Recurring Topics

Human Relations

- Understanding Others
- Courtesy to Others
- Cooperation

Organization Activities

- Aims and Purposes
- *Robert's Rules of Order*
- Making a Speech
- Learning Opportunities
- Recreational Opportunities

Specific related instruction.—The term "specific related instruction" is used to denote instruction given to the students in the related class in the technical information requisite to their jobs. At least half of the time available for related instruction should be devoted to these needs. Whereas general topics of value to all class members may be handled through group instruction, the technical requirements of the numerous agricultural occupations must be handled through individual instruction. The technical requirements of the various jobs and occupations differ. The rate and extent of learning vary considerably among student-learners. To be effective, technical instruction in cooperative agricultural education must be individualized, and student-learners must accept the responsibility for applying themselves, with the guidance of their teachers.

Training plan.—Because each agricultural student-learner needs instruction in the specific job activities performed on the job, the teacher-coordinator must determine what those specific learnings are. The technique that accomplishes this is the development of a ***training plan***. There ***must*** be a training plan for every individual student-learner, showing what is to be learned on the job. This plan should be worked out by the teacher-coordinator in cooperation with the employer. This plan will be in the form of a job analysis of the phases of the occupation that the student-learner is expected to learn.

Training will be given in many occupations with which any coordinator is not familiar and about which assistance will have to be sought. In practically all instances, a craft committee or an advisory committee can help. This committee may consist of the employer or supervisor and an employee in the establishment, or it may consist of people engaged in the occupation outside the educational agency. The employer should be encouraged to have a hand in working out the training plan.

This training plan may be worked out in any one of a number of forms, but the three-column variety will probably be the most usable and convenient. The first, or left-hand, column contains a listing by units of the manipulative skills to be learned on the job, while the related information that correlates with these job units appears in the second column. In the third column are references to specific books, magazines, etc., that indicate exactly where the desired related information can be found.

When the training plan is completed, it becomes a part of the training agreement. Training plans are discussed later in this chapter, and an example is shown in Figure 17-5.

When a schedule of processes or other job analyses has been worked out for each student-learner, the teacher-coordinator still faces the problems of learning to guide each student's individual study, making necessary instructional materials available, and developing a classroom suitable for individual study.[5]

SPECIAL LABORATORIES AND CLASSROOMS

If the school already has a vocational agricultural education classroom and laboratory, and these facilities are available to be used for related instruction, then new facilities may not be necessary to accommodate the cooperative agricultural education instruction. If a laboratory is not available, then a classroom suited to both group and individual instruction is desirable.

Movable tables might well be arranged in a "U" shape, with chairs outside the "U." Chalkboard space, bulletin board space, reference book shelves, magazine racks, and filing cabinets are important, as are an audiotape recorder, a tape-slide projector, a videocassette, and a computer terminal (see Figures 17-1 and 17-2 for two alternatives). With technological advancements significantly impacting all vocational education, including agricultural education, consideration needs to be given to the inclusion of a personal computer in the related instruction classroom.

A conference room available for individual student–coordinator conferences is an important feature of the cooperative education classroom. Here there is privacy for discussing personal problems or problems encountered at the training station. Glass partitions or large glass windows in the conference room allow the activities going on in the classroom to be in full view of the teacher-coordinator, who is participating in an individual conference. If there are other cooperative education plans, such as health occupations or home ec-

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[5] Training stations and training plans can be developed for a wide range of student-learners, from slow achievers to fast achievers. Competency-based SSLO, described in Chapter 11, can be selected each evaluation period, suitable to the learning abilities of the individual student-learner.

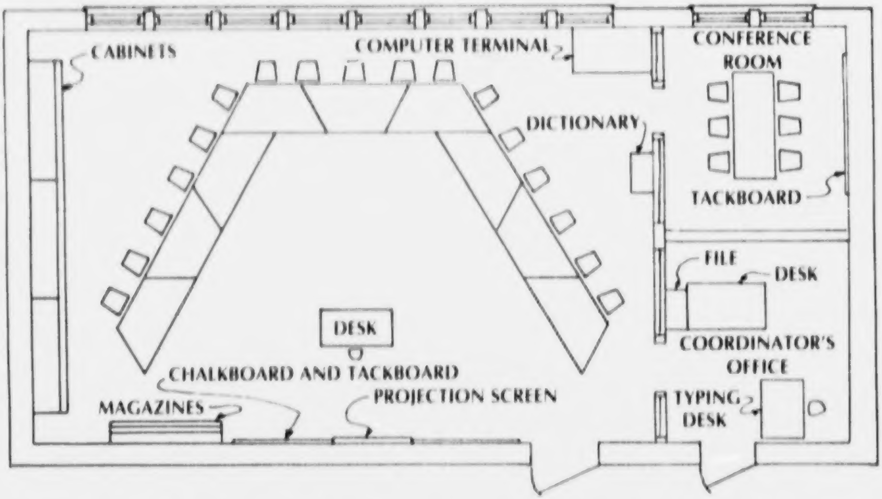

CABINETS
COMPUTER TERMINAL
CONFERENCE ROOM
DICTIONARY
TACKBOARD
FILE
DESK
DESK
COORDINATOR'S OFFICE
CHALKBOARD AND TACKBOARD
MAGAZINES
PROJECTION SCREEN
TYPING DESK

FIG. 17-1. Floor plan for a cooperative agricultural education related instruction room with conference area and coordinator's office.

onomics occupations in the school, conceivably this specially designed classroom could be shared with those teacher-coordinators. This type of scheduling of the classroom will be dependent on the time during the day the related class is scheduled, since all the cooperative students should be available to go to training stations during the afternoon hours. This type of classroom is also ideal for adult training and development

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

By writing to the following sources, identifying the needs specific for instructional materials for related class instruction in cooperative agricultural education, teacher-coordinators can obtain titles, descriptions, and price lists of textbooks, manuals, and audio-visual aids.

Curriculum and Instructional Materials Center
State Department of Vocational and Technical Education
1500 West Seventh Avenue
Stillwater, OK 74074-4364

Vocational Agriculture Service
University of Illinois
1401 South Maryland Drive
Urbana, IL 61801

Curriculum Publications Clearinghouse
Western Illinois University
Horrabin Hall 46
Macomb, IL 61455

Mid-America Vocational Curriculum Consortium
1500 West Seventh Avenue
Stillwater, OK 74074

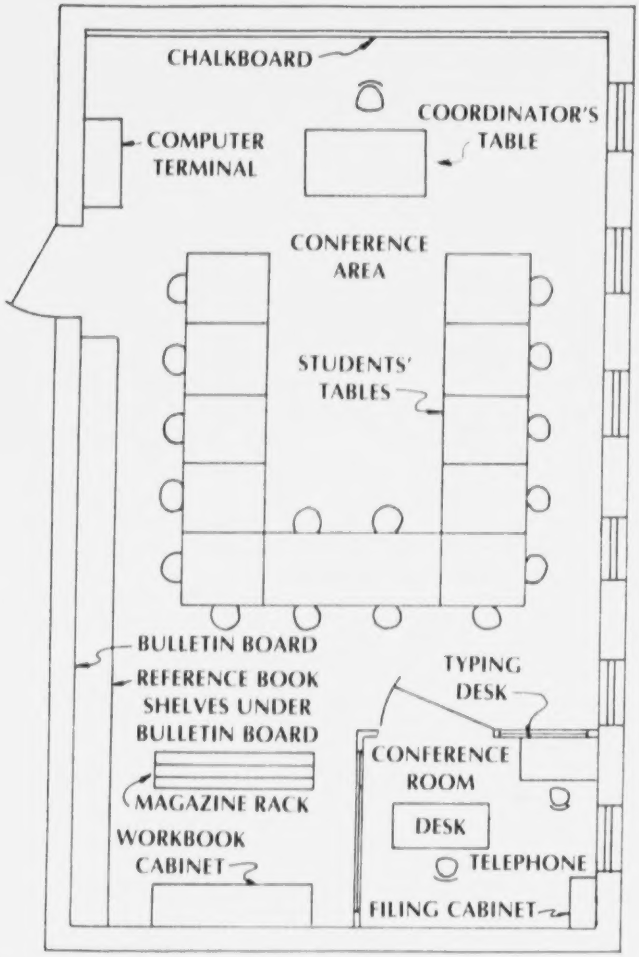

CHALKBOARD
COMPUTER TERMINAL
COORDINATOR'S TABLE
CONFERENCE AREA
STUDENTS' TABLES
BULLETIN BOARD
REFERENCE BOOK SHELVES UNDER BULLETIN BOARD
TYPING DESK
CONFERENCE ROOM
MAGAZINE RACK
DESK
WORKBOOK CABINET
TELEPHONE
FILING CABINET

FIG. 17-2. Another floor plan for a cooperative agricultural education related instruction room with conference area

Vocational Education Productions
California Polytechnic State University
San Luis Obispo, CA 93407

Ohio Agricultural Education
Curriculum Materials Service
Room 254, 2120 Fyffe Road
The Ohio State University
Columbus, OH 43210

Career-Aids, Inc.
20417 Nordhoff Street, Dept. VM
Chatsworth, CA 91311

Computer Software Resources
AAVIM
120 Driftmier Engineering Center
Athens, GA 30602

Microsoftware Solutions
Division of Career-Aids, Inc.
20417 Nordhoff Street, Dept. B6
Chatsworth, CA 91311

Agri-Comp Systems
Division of MESA, Ltd.
338 South Eighth Avenue
West Bend, WI 53095

NASCO
901 Jacksonville Avenue
Fort Atkinson, WI 53538

The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc.
P.O. Box 50
Danville, IL 61834

AVA Special Publications
1410 King Street
Alexandria, VA 22314

Illinois Vocational Curriculum Center
Sangamon State University, F-2
Springfield, IL 62708

IAVIM
208 Davidson Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, IA 50011

Instructional Materials Laboratory
10 Industrial Education Building
University of Missouri–Columbia
Columbia, MO 652111

Prentice-Hall Media
ServCode FA
P.O. Box 1050
Mount Kisco, NY 10549

Agri-Farm Publications, Inc.
1019 Market Street
Box 43
Gowrie, IA 50543

Gregg Division
McGraw-Hill Book Co.
13955 Manchester Road
Manchester, MO 63011

STUDENT ORGANIZATION

The Future Farmers of America (FFA) organization is the third dimension of the cooperative education plan. It, along with the classroom and the training station, is an integral part of instruction. Refer to Chapter 14 for suggestions on how students can benefit from participation in an FFA chapter.

FFA has long been noted for its stress on parliamentary procedure, neat appearance and appropriate dress, proper etiquette and good manners in public activities, and successful completion of individual and group projects. All of these are important to student-learners. In fact, if the number of student-learners warrant it, a special chapter of FFA for these trainees might be appropriate.

SECURING DESIRED LEARNING ON THE JOB

The experiences in the training station are vital to student-learners to give them opportunities to put into practice under supervision those skills and knowledges learned in school and on the job. Consult Chapters 10, 11, and 12 again for suggestions on how to integrate effectively in-school instruction with on-the-job experiences.

Teacher-coordinators are reminded that the proper establishment of training stations is very important. Training stations should provide more than just jobs for students. Approved training stations must be agriculturally related to the career objectives of the students. Training stations should provide adequate supervision and appropriate hours per week and for the school year so that a quality educational experience is available.

A training profile for each potential training station, as shown in Figure 17-3, is a useful tool in deciding whether adequate learning experiences are available at a given business. Some coordinators use this profile as a review of what has transpired at a training station during the school year. The student and job supervisor help develop the profile at the end of the school year. Some coordinators use this form as a training station analysis when they are selecting or approving training stations. In those cases, the degree of progress items are changed to:

1. No training available.
2. Very little training available.
3. Adequate training available.
4. A great deal of training available.
5. Does not apply.

STUDENT EVALUATION

A weekly student-learner report from each student is advisable. This report (see Figure 12-1, page 305) can be prepared in class each Monday morning as a summary of the previous week's experiences on the job. Ask each student to prepare one and keep the reports filed in a student folder.

An appropriate rating sheet should be used at the end of each grading period, filled out preferably by the coordinator in consultation with the job su-

CASE-IN-POINT

Kenney Shows Promise

The Southern States farm cooperative store in Lexington, Kentucky, deals in seed grains, hardware supplies, paint, small engine products, fence, feeds, feed mill services, etc. The cooperative agricultural education coordinator, Harvey Gibbs, feels that this organization would make a perfect training station for one of his students who has grown up on a farm. The student, Kenney Dobbs, has a pleasant personality, a good record in vocational agriculture, and an overall B grade average in school. He has shown leadership in the FFA and in football. Everything points to his potential for an eventual supervisory or management career.

Mr. Gibbs secures an appointment to consult with the manager, Everett Toll, regarding the cooperative as a training station for the coming school year. Mr. Gibbs takes along to the appointment a profile of the types of duties and responsibilities that a student-learner with Kenney's potential could experience in a retail store operation during the senior year in cooperative education. Mr. Toll has room on his payroll for a part-time employee. The Southern States organization likes to bring promising employees up the career ladder into its management ranks. Its many stores across the Midwest are always searching for good assistant managers and managers.

The opportunity to employ a student-learner appeals to Mr. Toll. He and Mr. Gibbs outline a training plan, adapting the profile to what is possible in the cooperative business. They agree on a beginning wage with possible raises during the school year and to set up an interview for Kenney, as well as several other possible trainees. If all goes well, and Kenney is chosen, he will start at his new training station the day after school begins in the fall.

pervisor, and in some cases, with the student present. Figure 17-3 is an example of one form. Other examples of various forms that can be adapted to specific needs are presented throughout the text. Each coordinator should seriously consider preparing appropriate forms in consultation with advisory committee members.

TRAINING PROFILE -- AGRICULTURAL MECHANICS HELPER

A combination of subject matter and activities desgined to develop abilities in the student that are necessary for his/her assisting with and/or performing the common and important operations or processes concerned with the selection, operation, maintenance, and use of agricultural power, agricultural machinery and equipment, structures and utilities, soil and water management, and sales and services.

Student's Name ____________________ School Year __________

Training Station ____________________

Recommended Level of Training ______________

Degree of Progress:

1. No training
2. Very little training
3. Adequate training
4. Great deal of training
5. Not applicable to program

Dates of Training Progress Evaluations: A ____ B ____ C ____ D ____

Task	A	B	C	D
Orientation				
1. Understands nature and purpose of firm.				
2. Knows regulations concerning working hours, tardinesses, absences, coffee breaks, holidays.				
3. Recognizes the job in relationship to the work flow at the firm.				
Duties and responsibilities				
1. Cleans the shop.				
2. Identifies and locates tools.				
3. Washes service rack.				
4. Cleans oil pump.				
5. Operates battery charger.				
6. Operates power grinder.				
7. Operates steam cleaner.				

FIG. 17-3

TRAINING PROFILE (Continued)

Task	A	B	C	D
Duties and responsibilities* (cont.)				
10. Adjusts tractor wheel width.				
12. Tests and services batteries.				
13. Installs truck bumpers and trailer hitches.				
18. Services cooling system.				
20. Operates power paint sprayer.				
21. Sharpens disks.				
26. Selects and changes oil and filter.				
28. Reassembles parts.				
29. Assembles new equipment according to instructions.				
30. Has mechanic check repair.				
35. Repairs body parts of machinery with only acetylene and arc welders.				
38. Identifies iron and steel parts and fasteners.				
40. Adjusts and calibrates machinery.				
41. Tightens and adjusts bolts, pulleys, sprockets, and chain.				
Miscellaneous duties				
1. Uses telephone.				
2. Conducts public relations.				
3. Carries out special assignments by management.				

*Note that because of space limitations, only selected tasks are shown from the many others that would be practiced; therefore, the numbers skip.

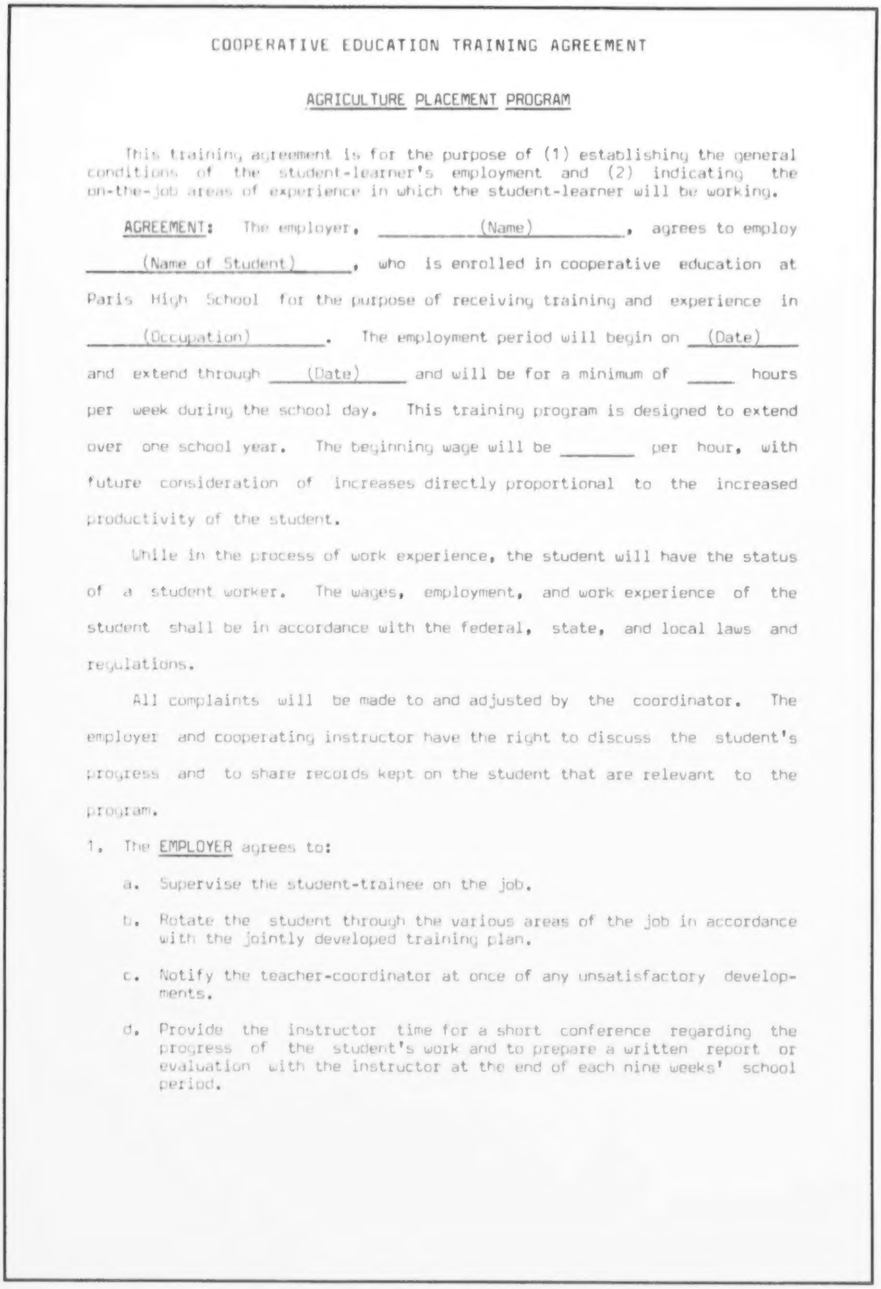
FIG. 17-3 (Continued)

STUDENT APPLICATION

With a knowledge of the demands of the cooperative plan upon students the teacher-coordinator accepts applications from prospective student-learners. An appropriate application form should be developed to serve the needs of the specific school system and its students. (Refer to Chapter 7 for information regarding interviewing, counseling, and admitting student-learners.)

TRAINING STATION OPPORTUNITIES

After studying the capabilities and needs of the student-learners accepted into the cooperative agricultural education plan, the teacher-coordinator needs to prepare a training agreement for each training station and for each student-learner placed there. A training agreement (see Figure 17-4) should have attached to it a step-by-step training plan (see Figure 17-5) which has been developed in consultation with the training station owner or the on-the-job supervisor. The appropriate matching of student-learners with training stations providing experiences suitable to each student's interests, abilities, and career objectives, will contribute to the success of cooperative education in the school system and in the business and agricultural communities.



COOPERATIVE EDUCATION TRAINING AGREEMENT

AGRICULTURE PLACEMENT PROGRAM

This training agreement is for the purpose of (1) establishing the general conditions of the student-learner's employment and (2) indicating the on-the-job areas of experience in which the student-learner will be working.

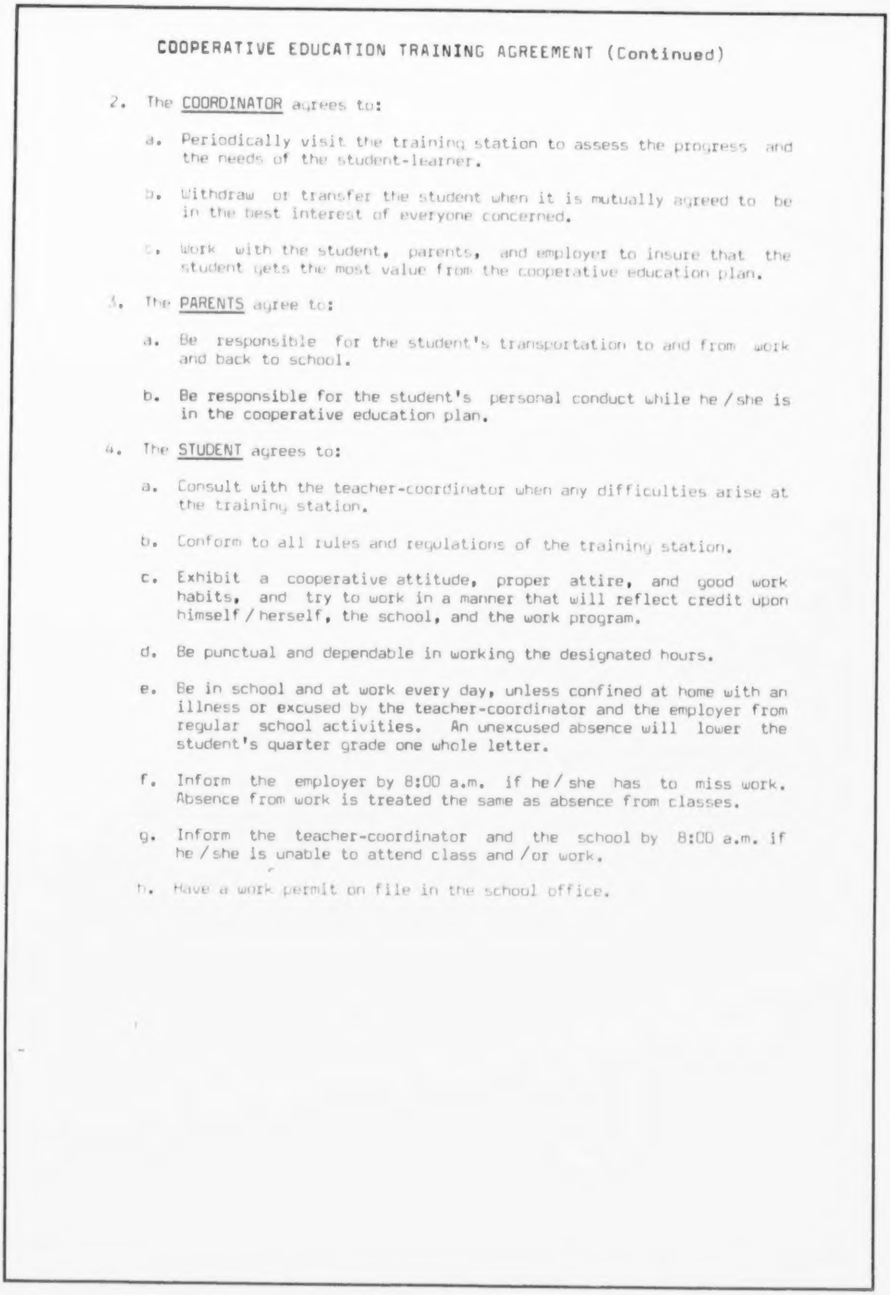
AGREEMENT: The employer, ________(Name)________, agrees to employ ________(Name of Student)________, who is enrolled in cooperative education at Paris High School for the purpose of receiving training and experience in ________(Occupation)________. The employment period will begin on ____(Date)____ and extend through ____(Date)____ and will be for a minimum of _____ hours per week during the school day. This training program is designed to extend over one school year. The beginning wage will be _______ per hour, with future consideration of increases directly proportional to the increased productivity of the student.

While in the process of work experience, the student will have the status of a student worker. The wages, employment, and work experience of the student shall be in accordance with the federal, state, and local laws and regulations.

All complaints will be made to and adjusted by the coordinator. The employer and cooperating instructor have the right to discuss the student's progress and to share records kept on the student that are relevant to the program.

1. The EMPLOYER agrees to:
   - a. Supervise the student-trainee on the job.
   - b. Rotate the student through the various areas of the job in accordance with the jointly developed training plan.
   - c. Notify the teacher-coordinator at once of any unsatisfactory developments.
   - d. Provide the instructor time for a short conference regarding the progress of the student's work and to prepare a written report or evaluation with the instructor at the end of each nine weeks' school period.

FIG. 17-4



COOPERATIVE EDUCATION TRAINING AGREEMENT (Continued)

2. The COORDINATOR agrees to:

   a. Periodically visit the training station to assess the progress and the needs of the student-learner.

   b. Withdraw or transfer the student when it is mutually agreed to be in the best interest of everyone concerned.

   c. Work with the student, parents, and employer to insure that the student gets the most value from the cooperative education plan.

3. The PARENTS agree to:

   a. Be responsible for the student's transportation to and from work and back to school.

   b. Be responsible for the student's personal conduct while he / she is in the cooperative education plan.

4. The STUDENT agrees to:

   a. Consult with the teacher-coordinator when any difficulties arise at the training station.

   b. Conform to all rules and regulations of the training station.

   c. Exhibit a cooperative attitude, proper attire, and good work habits, and try to work in a manner that will reflect credit upon himself / herself, the school, and the work program.

   d. Be punctual and dependable in working the designated hours.

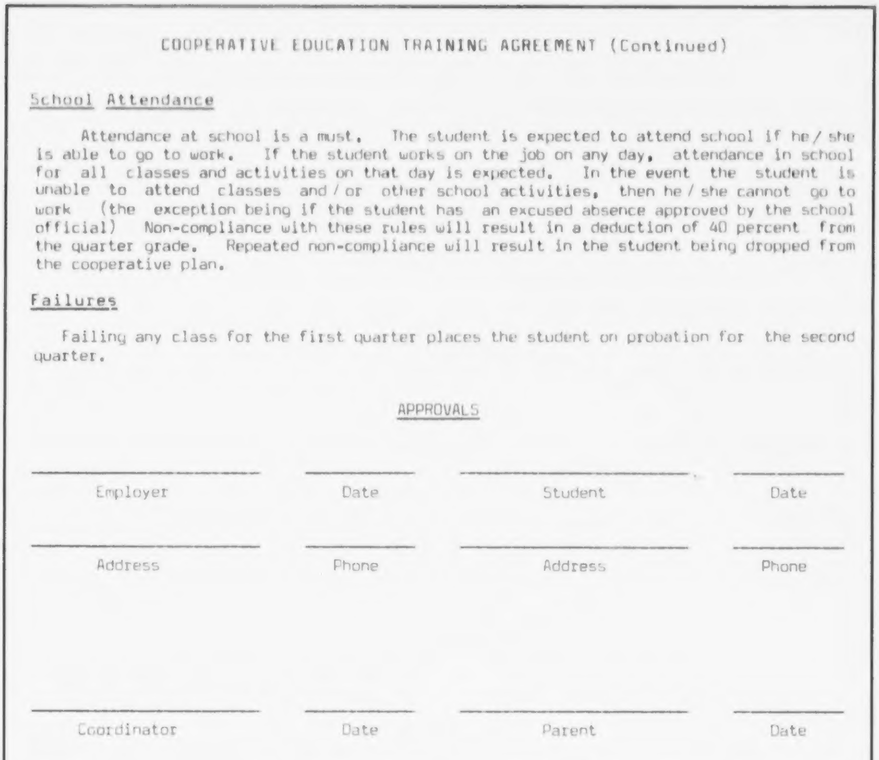
   e. Be in school and at work every day, unless confined at home with an illness or excused by the teacher-coordinator and the employer from regular school activities. An unexcused absence will lower the student's quarter grade one whole letter.

   f. Inform the employer by 8:00 a.m. if he / she has to miss work. Absence from work is treated the same as absence from classes.

   g. Inform the teacher-coordinator and the school by 8:00 a.m. if he / she is unable to attend class and / or work.

   h. Have a work permit on file in the school office.

FIG. 17-4 (Continued)



COOPERATIVE EDUCATION TRAINING AGREEMENT (Continued)

School Attendance

Attendance at school is a must. The student is expected to attend school if he / she is able to go to work. If the student works on the job on any day, attendance in school for all classes and activities on that day is expected. In the event the student is unable to attend classes and / or other school activities, then he / she cannot go to work (the exception being if the student has an excused absence approved by the school official) Non-compliance with these rules will result in a deduction of 40 percent from the quarter grade. Repeated non-compliance will result in the student being dropped from the cooperative plan.

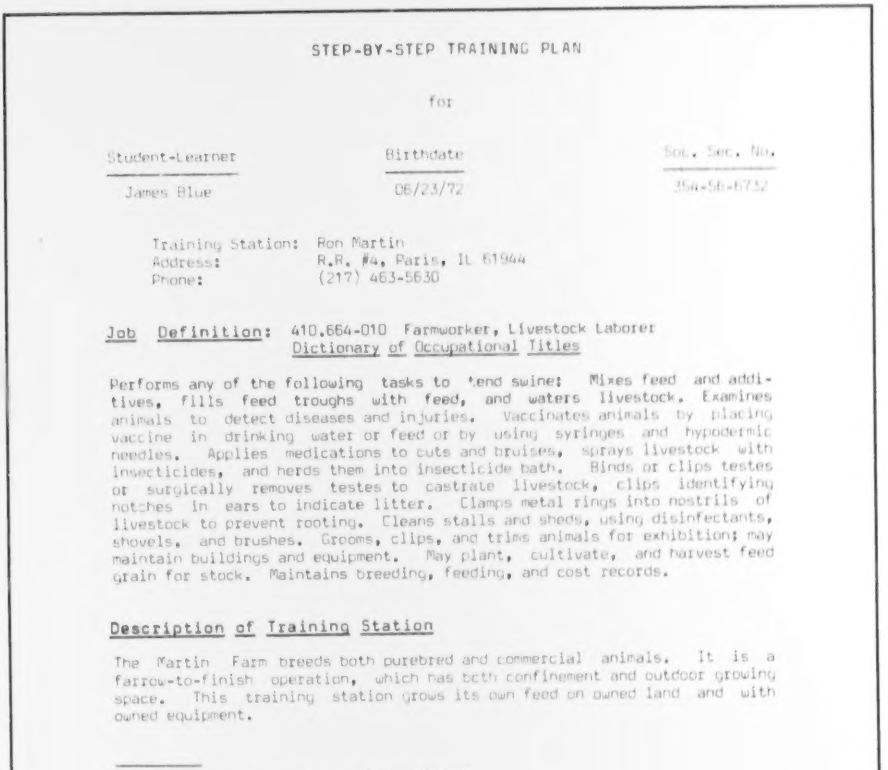
Failures

Failing any class for the first quarter places the student on probation for the second quarter.

APPROVALS

Employer	Date	Student	Date
Address	Phone	Address	Phone
Coordinator	Date	Parent	Date
Address	Phone	Address	Phone

FIG. 17-4 (Continued)



STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN

for

Student-Learner	Birthdate	Soc. Sec. No.
James Blue	06/23/72	354-56-6732

Training Station: Ron Martin
Address: R.R. #4, Paris, IL 61944
Phone: (217) 463-5630

Job Definition: 410.664-010 Farmworker, Livestock Laborer
Dictionary of Occupational Titles

Performs any of the following tasks to tend swine: Mixes feed and additives, fills feed troughs with feed, and waters livestock. Examines animals to detect diseases and injuries. Vaccinates animals by placing vaccine in drinking water or feed or by using syringes and hypodermic needles. Applies medications to cuts and bruises, sprays livestock with insecticides, and herds them into insecticide bath. Binds or clips testes or surgically removes testes to castrate livestock, clips identifying notches in ears to indicate litter. Clamps metal rings into nostrils of livestock to prevent rooting. Cleans stalls and sheds, using disinfectants, shovels, and brushes. Grooms, clips, and trims animals for exhibition; may maintain buildings and equipment. May plant, cultivate, and harvest feed grain for stock. Maintains breeding, feeding, and cost records.

Description of Training Station

The Martin Farm breeds both purebred and commercial animals. It is a farrow-to-finish operation, which has both confinement and outdoor growing space. This training station grows its own feed on owned land and with owned equipment.

Courtesy: Paris High School, Paris, Illinois

FIG. 17-5

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

		School Instruction		
Learning Experiences	Training Station	Group	Individual	Time Schedule
A. Performing Administrative and Record-keeping Functions				
1. Applies for registration with purebred swine association.	x		x	
2. Appraises farm properties to determine their total value.	x	x	x	
3. Assigns jobs to workers.	x			
4. Calculates cost of gain on feeder pig operation.	x		x	
5. Calculates cost of rations and feed mixture.	x			
6. Dismisses employees.		x		
7. Hires employees.		x		
8. Keeps breeding and farrowing records.	x		x	
9. Keeps labor records.	x		x	
10. Files swine operations documents.	x			
11. Maintains record system.	x	x	x	
12. Makes inventory of swine and equipment.	x			
13. Orders fuel and petroleum supplies.	x			
14. Orders replacement parts for equipment.	x			
15. Plans for increased land requirements by leasing.		x	x	
16. Plans for increased land requirements by purchasing.		x	x	
17. Plans goals for swine farm.	x		x	
18. Plans pasture rotation system.	x		x	
19. Plans public relations program for the farm.	x	x	x	
20. Plans daily work schedule.	x		x	

FIG. 17-5 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Learning Experiences	Training Station	School Instruction		Time Schedule
		Group	Individual	
21. Prepares cash flow statement.		x	x	
22. Prepares farm income tax return.		x	x	
23. Prepares marketing records.	x	x	x	
24. Prepares production performance records.	x	x	x	
25. Prepares purchase orders.		x	x	
26. Prepares swine feeding records.	x		x	
27. Purchases new or used equipment.		x	x	
28. Records fuel, oil, and hydraulic fluid consumed.	x			
29. Records swine health information.	x		x	
30. Records weaning weight of pigs.	x		x	
31. Sets priorities for purchasing equipment.	x	x	x	
B. Maintaining a Safe Environment				
1. Disposes of unused chemicals.	x	x	x	
2. Extinguishes fires.	x	x	x	
3. Keeps a record of accidents.	x		x	
4. Keeps work areas ventilated.	x			
5. Makes inspections for safety hazards.	x		x	
6. Stores chemicals, flammable materials, and medications.	x	x	x	
C. Maintaining Hog Herd Health				
1. Administers medication by injection.	x		x	
2. Administers oral medication.	x		x	
3. Applies insecticides in buildings.	x			
4. Applies medication to cuts and bruises.	x			

FIG. 17-5 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Learning Experiences	Training Station	School Instruction		Time Schedule
		Group	Individual	
5. Cleans swine pens and housing.	x			
6. Disinfects boots and clothing.	x			
7. Disinfects buildings and equipment.	x			
8. Dusts swine.	x		x	
9. Examines hogs for external parasites.	x		x	
10. Examines hogs for internal parasites.	x		x	
11. Gives iron shots.	x		x	
12. Paints sow's underline with iron compound.	x		x	
13. Plans disease control program.	x	x	x	
14. Plans parasite control program.	x	x	x	
15. Separates sick, weak, and injured animals.	x		x	
16. Sprays swine.	x			
17. Takes temperature of animals.	x	x	x	
18. Treats hogs for contagious diseases	x		x	
19. Treats hogs for scours.	x		x	
20. Vaccinates animals.	x	x	x	

(Because of space limitations, the remainder of this training plan shows only the main headings of the learning experiences and omits the detailed breakdown.)

D. Formulating Feeds and Feeding

E. Constructing and Maintaining Swine Operations Buildings, Structures, and Equipment

F. Marketing and Shipping Hogs

G. Breeding Swine

H. Fitting and Showing Swine

I. Handling and Caring for Animals

FIG. 17-5 (Continued)

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a 20-minute talk that you could give before a civic club, trade group, or union explaining the cooperative agricultural education plan. Prepare charts or other visual aids to supplement your talk. (Add the notes of this talk to your files.)
2. What are the minimum qualifications for becoming certified as a cooperative education coordinator in a reimbursable program in your state?
3. How adequate is the list of topics for related instruction suggested in this chapter? If you were the teacher-coordinator, which areas would you emphasize the most? Use a specific-type program as a case for your analysis.
4. If you were preparing a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing equipment and supplies for a cooperative agricultural training classroom, what essentials would you request the first year? What would be some desirable items you would put in your plan for purchase later on? (Add the notes of these ideas to your files.)
5. Analyze the learning outcomes that could be expected in a specific prospective training station in your local community. Determine the possibility of a student-learner's progress toward his/her career objective in this training station by the end of the school year. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to proceed.)
6. Discuss the merits of the step-by-step training plan (or schedule of processes) in organizing a training station and the merits of the profile approach to evaluating a training station experience.
7. How do FFA organization activities provide educational experiences for student-learners? How do they differ from other occupational areas?
8. From examples you have studied, prepare for each of the following a form that you could use in a local cooperative agricultural training program: a rating sheet on the student-learner at the training station and a weekly report form on which the student-learner could report his/her training station activities. (Add a copy of each of these to your files.)
9. How might you, as a teacher-coordinator, participate in a local agricultural adult training and development program?
10. State the learning outcomes of a training plan in behavioral terms. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions.)

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

18

The Plan in Business Occupations

Recent technological changes have made word processing prominent in business occupations.

KEY CONCEPT: *Although those competencies necessary for business occupations exist in many types of businesses, only those occupations that require competencies primarily in recording, storing, reproducing, and communicating information can be called business occupations.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the projects, the student should be able to:

- Describe recent changes in business education curricula and curricula content.
- Identify appropriate training stations that are available in business occupations and their career objectives.
- Choose a proper curriculum for a local plan in cooperative business education.
- Devise appropriate training plans for training stations.
- Evaluate other student-learners in the classroom and on the job.
- Describe student-learner membership benefits in BPA.
- Prepare a list of topics to be included in a cooperative business education student handbook.

For many years, secondary education for business was called "commercial education." Then, in the 1950's, a new term, "business education," came into vogue. It was used to describe an educational program that provided educational experience both *for* and *about* business. Simply put, it indicated that business educators were to assist all persons in becoming knowledgeable, economic citizens and wise consumers who would be equipped with basic but personal skills of business. In addition, business educators were to furnish students with exploratory experiences related to careers in business and to instruct them in ways to gain entry employment and later upgrading and advancement.

Within the framework of business education is the office occupations education plan. Although the term "business and office occupations" continues to be used to define the target occupational areas in which the cooperative plan provides vocational instruction, many state departments of education and the American Vocational Association now simply call the discipline area "business education." In this chapter, the terms "business occupations" and "business education" broadly refer to all the occupations included in *A Classification of Instructional Programs*[1] as being vocational business and office programs. The families of business occupations for reporting purposes are:

07.01 Accounting, Bookkeeping, and Related Programs
07.02 Banking and Related Financial Programs
07.03 Business Data Processing and Related Programs
07.04 Office Supervision and Management
07.05 Personnel and Training Programs
07.06 Secretarial and Related Programs
07.07 Typing, General Office, and Related Programs
07.99 Business and Office, Other

The New Business Education Curriculum

Recently, business education curriculums have been challenged as never before to be responsive to the new office occupations and the new technologies impacting all business occupations. Although some of the curriculum changes needed have been minor, most have required that students develop new skills so that they can be productive workers in today's information age. In many cases, the changes have required remodeling facilities, purchasing new equipment, developing competency-based curriculums, training teachers in the new technologies, and even hiring new staff members to accommodate the changes.

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[1] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*. Vocational–Technical Education Programs. National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, 1981, pp. 182–183.

BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS IN THE INFORMATION AGE

The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics projects that most jobs during the rest of this decade and the next decade will not involve high levels of scientific or computational skills, with high technology industries expected to account for only 17 percent of the new jobs created between 1987 and 1995. The Bureau defines high technology occupations as those that require intensive knowledge of technology. The five occupations that the Bureau expects to grow the most by 1995, in absolute numbers, not percentage growth, are building custodians, secretaries, cashiers, general office clerks, and sales clerks.

In 1982, there were about 2.5 million secretaries. The projected increase by 1995 is 719,000. In addition, the best estimate of the number of secretaries who change occupations or leave the labor force is about 500,000 a year. Even if these estimates are wrong by 50 percent, there will be a great demand for secretaries. Thus, cooperative education programs for office occupations in recent years have been, and will continue to be in the future, faced with many challenges.

NEW CURRICULUM CONTENT

The business education curriculum has undergone major changes in recent years. Partly in response to technological advances impacting business occupations and partly in response to national educational thrusts, several national studies have been completed in an effort to update the business education's program content and teaching methodologies required to prepare students for emerging employment needs. In 1984, one study, sponsored by the Business/Industry Task Force of the National Business Education Association, conducted a survey of U.S. firms that hired significant numbers of employees in management support positions to determine their future plans for office automation.[2] Seventy-one percent of the firms responding stated that they would be purchasing additional word processing equipment, and 58 percent reported that they would be purchasing additional software to increase their information–word processing capabilities. Those firms responding to the survey stressed that today's office worker, working in an automated office, must be proficient in all language arts skills, including being able to spell well and possessing a broad vocabulary. The firms answering the survey also listed the ability to use common sense and good judgment and the possession of effective time management skills as critical for job success in today's automated office.[3]

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[2] Harry R. Moon and David H. Weaver, "Report of Survey on Office Automation, NBEA Business/Industry Task Force," *Business Education Forum*, Vol. 39, No. 3, December 1984, pp. 3–5.

Based on the results of the survey, the NBEA Business/Industry Task Force recommended that teachers preparing students for entry-level jobs in contemporary business offices: (1) develop for all students an introduction to basic office technologies that would include general information about information processing, including data and word processing, electronic records management, and electronic mail; (2) provide all students with training on word processing equipment; (3) teach machine dictating and transcribing skills to all students; (4) help all students develop editing and proofreading skills; (5) teach applied basic language skills, including grammar, spelling, and word usage to all students; and (6) teach all students skills in work prioritization and effective time management.[4]

In 1985, the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Vocational and Adult Education, published the results of a project conducted at East Carolina University, Greenville, entitled *National Standards of Excellence for Business Education*.[5] The project developed standards for excellence in business education programs and instructional standards for information processing curriculums at both the secondary and post-secondary/adult levels. Program standards were developed in nine topical areas, namely, "Philosophy and Purpose," "Organization and Administration," "Curriculum and Instruction," "Instructional Staff," "Financial Resources," "Instructional Support Systems," "Public Relations," "Student Development Services," and "Evaluation." The six areas in the information processing instructional standards were "Organization," "Content," "Related Content," "Methods and Resources," "Instructional Support Systems," and "Evaluation." The primary intent of the study was to provide business educators with evaluative criteria so they could identify and correct program deficiencies. The information gathered in the self-evaluation will establish a program profile from which program improvement plans and implementation strategies can be formulated.

Both of these studies reinforce the premise that if business curriculums are to prepare employees to be productive in new business environments where technology is impacting all business operations, then curriculums must change. Those changes are causing an evolution, if not a revolution, in business education. Many changes are already apparent; others are being planned. The following are some examples of the new directions business education curriculums must take.

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[3] *Ibid*

[4] *Ibid*

[5] *National Standards of Excellence for Business Education*, a project at East Carolina University's School of Technology, Greenville. Funded and published by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Washington, D.C., 1985. Printed and disseminated by the National Business Education Association, 1914 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091

1. Although accounting principles have not changed, the methods of performing accounting tasks have changed. Accounting firms use mainframe computers, minicomputers, personal computers, and even word processors to do the work. Business education students must have hands-on time on a personal computer to complete accounting assignments.
2. The business education curriculum must offer a short-term keyboarding class, preferably for nine weeks, to teach the typing keyboard and the 10-key number pad by touch. The year-long beginning typing course is not intended to meet keyboarding objectives and thus is not a substitute for offering a keyboarding class.
3. In some schools, typing instruction and word processing instruction have begun to melt together. As more typewriters are replaced with word processors or personal computers, advanced word processing instruction rather than text editing will be included in office procedure courses.
4. The decrease in the number of jobs requiring shorthand and the general decrease in secondary school enrollments have created a need for business educators to re-evaluate shorthand offerings. Some businesses continue to use shorthand as a screening technique for job applicants, when in fact the worker on the job never uses shorthand. It is highly questionable if such a practice is legal. Employment tests are required by law to be content valid. That is, the skills tested must be related to actual job duties. Thus, if a company is using shorthand as a screening device, when in fact the person hired will never use shorthand, the firm could be held to be using discriminatory hiring practices.

   Recent studies clearly show that students need to develop skills in machine dictation as well as machine transcription. Thus, business education curriculums need to include these two areas.
5. Electronic records management is essential to contemporary business operations. Business students need to know about the media that can be used to store records, such as microfilm and microfiche, in addition to learning basic alphabetic filing rules. They need to learn how to set up electronic files and to attach labels and descriptors to documents so they can be located quickly.

The Cooperative Plan in Secondary Business Education Curriculum Patterns

Those teacher-coordinators who are part of the team of business educators need to consider how cooperative plans of instruction become an integral part of contemporary business education curriculum patterns. There are four basic patterns that are used to provide business occupations education at the secondary level. These, in brief, are:

1. ***Separate course pattern.***—A number of courses offered in various areas of business content, with some, such as typing, bookkeeping, and shorthand, planned as a beginning and an advanced sequence. The cooperative plan is often offered as an advanced senior experience for students who have completed several of these basic preparatory courses. Depending on the school, specialized sequences may be used with the cooperative plan for each specialization—clerical, stenographic, bookkeeping–accounting, and information–word processing.
2. ***Cooperative education sequence.***—The sequence of courses for grades 9–12 is the following:
   Grades 9–11: Prerequisite business subjects, depending on the aptitudes and interests of the students, such as beginning typing, information–word processing, bookkeeping–accounting, and introduction to business.
   Grade 12: Cooperative office experience—approximately one-half day; related class for cooperative student-learners—either one of two periods, entitled "Cooperative Office Practice," "Cooperative Business Occupations," "Cooperative Related Instruction," "Cooperative Office Education," or "Cooperative Business Education"; electives—one or more periods in general education, such as English, or in related business education courses, such as advanced bookkeeping–accounting, office procedures, data processing.
3. ***Skill sequence with a capstone laboratory.***—A program of instruction consisting of one or more basic and core skill courses, plus a culminating senior laboratory experience on a block-time schedule, which integrates prior learnings with a defined entry and career objective. The cooperative plan may be offered to students in this plan as part of their experiences, especially in the method of integrating their single-skill experiences into a definable behavioral pattern.
4. ***Intensified senior program.***—An intensified senior (preschool-leaving) program that crams, for those with few prior business cours-

es, a complete entry-job curriculum into a block-time schedule. This approach uses the cooperative plan as an instructional device when needed during the year, especially at the end when the student is both employable and ready to undertake the task-oriented experiences of the real job.

These approaches are basic because they attempt to structure offerings to student needs and commitment to various time schedules. Each approach uses the cooperative plan of instruction. What varies in each is the dependence of the institution upon the cooperative plan to provide for a whole range of instructional objectives.

Guidelines for Using the Cooperative Plan

When the cooperative plan is used as part of the business education curriculum structure, several guidelines should be observed. They are:

1. The nature of the required prerequisite courses is determined by the career objectives of the students and the placements that can be arranged. For example, while taking a course in advanced typewriting, bookkeeping, or general office procedures in his/her senior year, a student with only one year of typewriting could be placed as a general clerk. Or, while taking a course in advanced word–information processing, a potential secretary could be placed as a clerk-typist.
2. If the cooperative related class is a two-hour time block, many skills that would normally be developed in other individual classes can be developed in that class. For example, these include operation of accounting machines and reprographic equipment, machine transcription, shorthand speed-building, word–information processing, and records management.
3. Because the cooperative related class is a laboratory, a maximum of 18 to 25 students can be enrolled. If more than that number is enrolled, then two or more sections must be scheduled. When this occurs, there are several alternatives: (a) The sections can be split with, for example, clerical or word processing student-learners in one and accounting student-learners in the other, thus allowing for specialized instruction without waste. (b) If a six-period day is used with three periods for coordination, then the related class must be reduced to one hour with the teacher-coordinator or two teacher-coordinators must be employed.

4. The two-year period of occupational experience is infrequently used because it has some undesirable features. For example, the eleventh-grade student usually has not had sufficient time to develop skills necessary for placement. The time devoted to occupational experience in the eleventh grade can be better used for enrollment in skill courses and for the development of more mature personal/social skills needed for employment.
5. A one-semester occupational experience may be desirable for some students.[6] However, one-semester students should be placed in a related instruction class by themselves so that the related instruction can be tailored to their needs.

Using Short-Term Employment Experiences

If students are in a vocational business laboratory course, several short-term directed experiences in the business world can serve purposes that regular classroom instruction is unlikely to serve. These experiences, if directed and geared to the students' career goals, as well as correlated with classroom learnings, are a form of cooperative experience. They are, in essence, a series of "mini-cooperative" programs.

There are several reasons why students should have actual job experiences. These are:

1. ***Job exploration.***—To find out what the adult world demands, what a small office is like compared to a large one, how the office position fits into the total operation. In short, students are asked to relate to real situations—they must come to grips with reality in this self-actualization process.
2. ***Skills application.***—To try out what has been learned according to classroom standards, to test theory (principles) against actual practice. In effect, the students are asked to see if they can "cut it," to bring back to school and share with others the methods by which various firms apply basic business skills and knowledges.
3. ***Skills development.***—To learn skills involving equipment and systems not available in the school, to acquire knowledges of a given industry or a line of business, to practice and to achieve better performance under actual conditions.

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[6] Most state plans currently do not permit reimbursement of less than a full-year program. Consult your own state plan on this matter.

4. ***Integration and polished performance.***—To "put it all together" when performing a set of tasks, for example, those associated with a real position in a real office, and to solve problems by applying what has been learned under conditions of stress and interruption.

Short-term experience projects may be a day, a week, or several weeks in duration. They are different for every student, not only in length but in timing over the year. A project is defined as a learning activity that is constructed to meet an individual student's career goal, learning style, and state of readiness.

1. Experience projects are most easily accomplished when the business occupations program is at least a two-hour block. A block of the last two periods of the day has the obvious advantage of continuing the experience after school hours. But, Saturdays, vacations, and nights also should be considered.
2. In-firm experiences are scheduled and controlled by a personnel officer who makes sure that all the students are met, assigned, supervised, and evaluated.
3. The competencies needed to achieve each level of the career ladder are shown in each student's career-goal plan.
4. All experiences are treated as valuable, regardless of whether they are observational or work-producing or whether or not they result in pay.
5. The range of practices in business firms, or the reality of the work world, is seldom represented by experiences in a school office, even though such experiences may be useful.
6. Experiences are reinforced when they are brought back to the classroom and shared with other students who enjoy them, enlarge their scope, and learn vicariously from the ones who are sharing them.
7. The time for planning, managing, and evaluating the experience projects on an individual basis must be allocated to the teachers who use them.
8. Not only should short-term experience projects be viewed by local supervisors and the state department as being essential to vocational instruction, but they also should be equated with cooperative plans in terms of reimbursement for time and energy inputs by the laboratory teachers, who thus become teacher-coordinators.

The following is a list of examples of some situations that portray what creative and community-wise teachers can do.

1. The entire class assists in inventory and gets out a mass mailing for a major firm for two weeks in the afternoons.

2. A student observes a receptionist for three days after school.
3. A firm employs two students as temporary workers, at nights and on Saturdays, to solve a labor shortage problem.
4. A group of students plan and do the clerical work for the campaign of a charitable organization.
5. A student works full time as a typist over the Christmas holiday.
6. Several students plan and carry out the office functions of the Booster Club.
7. One student prepares microfiche records for a legal firm every afternoon after school for a semester.
8. Several students work half-days for a month with selected employers in various business occupations.
9. Several students observe the same job in four dissimilar firms one day a week for a month and then each writes a report.
10. The entire class operates an office for a month, taking in contract work for local firms, school officials, and community agencies.

Basic Competencies and Instructional Objectives

Generally, the business education program at the secondary level uses the cooperative plan primarily as a capstone experience that "tops off" a series of instructional experiences through separate courses. Some business education curricula are intensive senior or pre-graduation programs, with the cooperative plan being used as an integral part of the block-time arrangement. Regardless of the curriculum approach used, the instructional objectives fall into similar areas and are based on the major competency areas demanded by the job cluster and the career goals.

The basic objectives of the plan of instruction are: (1) common occupational competence, (2) business and office job cluster competence, (3) initial job and career objective competence, and (4) general learnings for competence as adults.

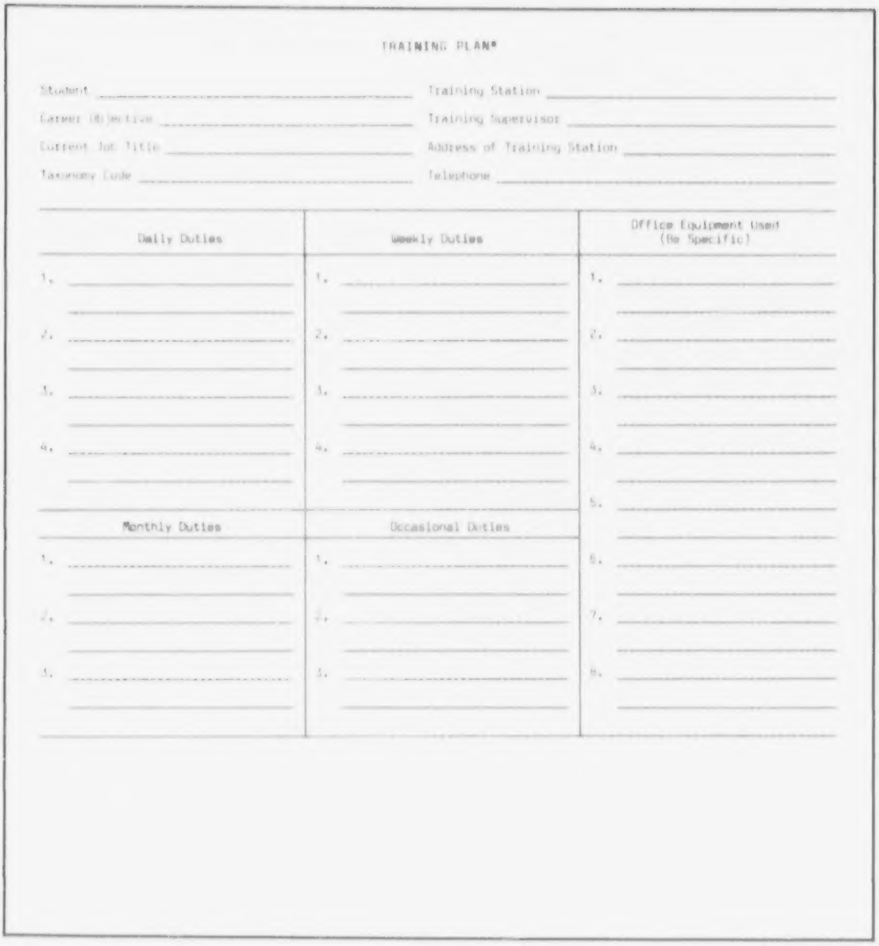
Common occupational competence.—Acquisition by student-learners of those competencies and attitudes needed by all workers regardless of their occupations. These learnings, previously described as ***occupational related learnings*** or ***general related learnings***, should be taught to the entire group. These areas of learning include the following examples: (1) employer–co-worker relationships, (2) job safety, (3) laws affecting workers, (4) personal development, (5) union–management relations, and (6) preparation for future education.

Job cluster competence.—Acquisition by student-learners of occupational skills and job intelligence basic to all business occupations so that the student-learners can advance successfully toward their career objectives. These learnings are primarily sought in the formal group classwork in which specific areas are studied. These often include:

School and office relationships (general)
Good grooming
Communications media (personal—telephone, telegraph, letters)
Personality analysis and development
Human relations and public relations
Filing, billing, recording
Office systems
Records management and maintenance
Bookkeeping fundamentals
Business machines operation
Business mathematics
Business English (proofreading and grammar)
Advanced typewriting and related skills
Clerical workers' and secretaries' vocabulary (both general and specific)
Machine transcription
Fundamentals of word–information processing

Initial job and career objective competence.—Acquisition by student-learners of those occupational skills and knowledges applicable to the particular initial jobs in which they are placed. Each student's individual learning outcomes are stated in the step-by-step training plan created by the teacher-coordinator and the training station sponsor. These learning outcomes involve office relationships, office information, office techniques, and acquaintance with resource materials on the job. They are emphasized in the informal individual conferences of the student-learners and teacher-coordinator and/or training station sponsors. The areas of experience and training providing the core elements of a training plan are illustrated by a list of learning outcomes for a student-learner assigned to a general office/clerical position. The training plan provides information as to whether these learning outcomes will be emphasized in the classroom or on the job or both. The training plan also can identify which learnings will be integrated in the vocational student organization's activities, as illustrated in Figure 18-1. Frequently, a complete training plan includes both a training agreement and a step-by-step training plan (Figure 18-2).

General learnings for competence.—Learnings that bring about improvement in the students' ability to read, write, and compute. The plan also should contribute to their economic understanding of the business world.



TRAINING PLAN*

Student ______________________ Training Station ______________________

Career Objective ______________________ Training Supervisor ______________________

Current Job Title ______________________ Address of Training Station ______________________

Taxonomy Code ______________________ Telephone ______________________

Daily Duties

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________
4. ______________________

Weekly Duties

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________
4. ______________________

Office Equipment Used
(Be Specific)

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________
4. ______________________
5. ______________________
6. ______________________
7. ______________________
8. ______________________

Monthly Duties

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________

Occasional Duties

1. ______________________
2. ______________________
3. ______________________

FIG. 18-1

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainee								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions — Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check – Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Typewriting												
Letters												
Envelopes												
Interoffice memoranda												
Reports												
Rough draft												
Statistical copy												
Legal documents												
Business forms												
Word Processing / Data Processing												
Access keys												
Data entry												
Editing												
Information analysis												
Composing Documents												
Letters												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainee								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Reprographics												
Printing / duplicating												
Recordkeeping / Bookkeeping												
Disbursing money												
Receiving money												
Making journal entries												
Posting												
Banking												
Check writing												
Depositing												
Reconciliation												
Banking services												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainee								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Processing Mail												
Incoming mail												
Outgoing mail												
Interoffice mail												
Meter mail												
Calculating												
Addition:												
Whole numbers												
Decimals												
Ratios												
Subtraction												
Multiplication												
Dividing												
Dictation and Transcription												
Shorthand												
Machine transcription												
Machine dictation												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainee								To be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check - Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Proofreading												
Correcting												
Records Management												
Setting [illegible]												
Indexing												
Alphabetic filing												
Numeric filing												
Retrieving records												
Telephoning												
Incoming calls												
Outgoing calls												
Recording telephone messages												
Screening telephone calls												
Handling appointments												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainee								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Taxes												
Sales												
FICA												
Income												
Federal												
W-2 Form												
W-4 Form												
State												
City												
Employability Skills												
Employment Sources												
Application Letter												
Resume												
Application Form												
Preparing for the Interview												
Handling the Interview												
[illegible]												
Testing												
Follow-up Letter												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student/Teacher								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check / Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
People-to-People Skills												
Courteous												
[illegible] ability												
Able to make decisions												
Able to take criticism												
Considerate												
Flexible												
Able to be entrusted with confidential matters												
Self-disciplined												
Able to listen attentively												
Dependable												
Positive attitude												
Proper office attire												
Performance												
Quality of work												
Quantity of work												
Knowledge of work												
[illegible]												
Initiative												
Judgment												
Attendance												
Punctuality												
Compliance with instructions												

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)

To Be Completed by the Student-Trainer								To Be Completed by the Supervisor				
Competencies	Job Descriptions -- Frequency of Use				Instruction Will Occur			Training Station Evaluation				
					Check - Date in Appropriate Column When Task First Performed			5 - Outstanding 4 - Excellent 3 - Good 2 - Satisfactory 1 - Unsatisfactory				
Skills, Knowledges, and Attitudes	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Occasionally	Related Class	Student Organization	Training Station	5	4	3	2	1
Job Specialties												
Other												

Employer ____________________________

Instructor ____________________________

Student-Trainee ____________________________

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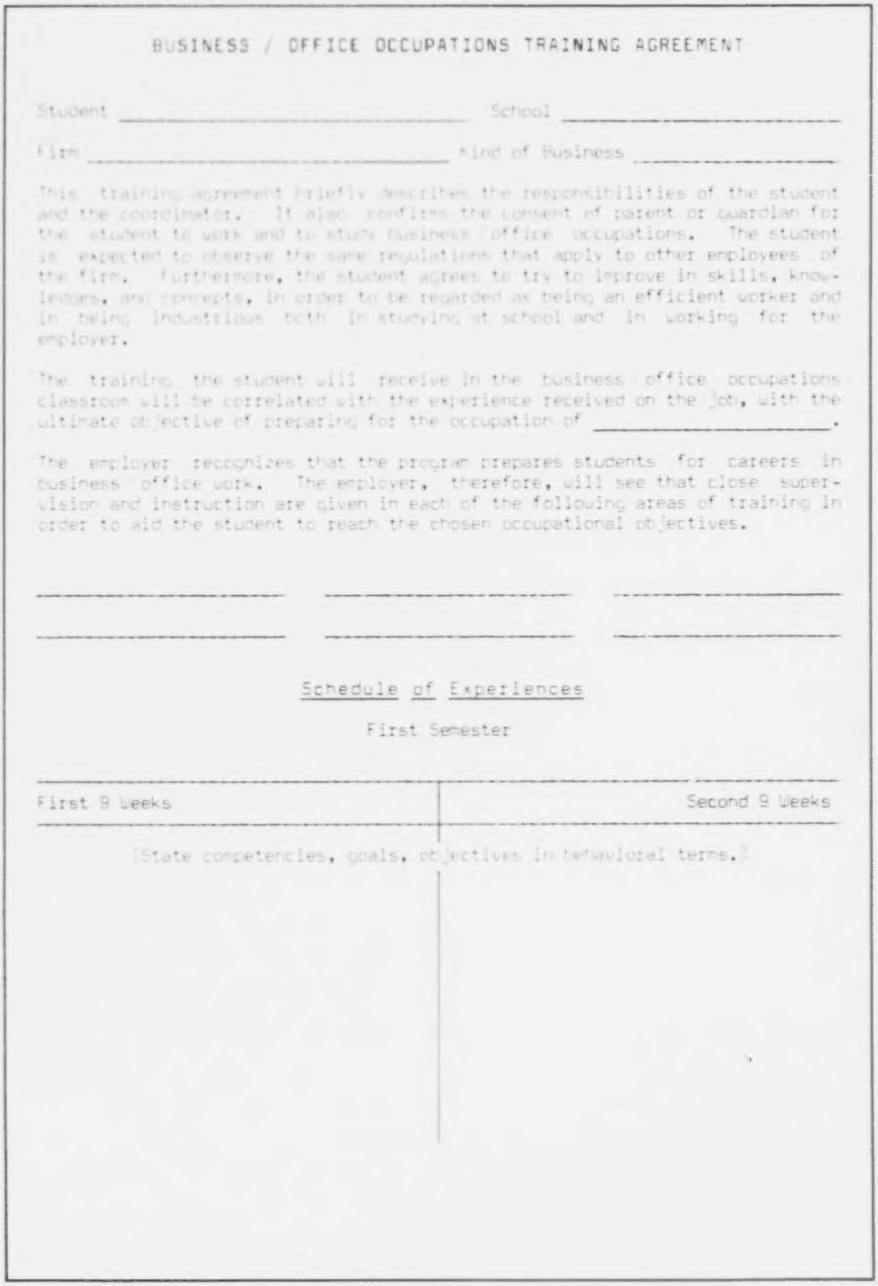
*Developed by the Northcentral [illegible] 1982 [illegible] Task Force.

FIG. 18-1 (Continued)



BUSINESS / OFFICE OCCUPATIONS TRAINING AGREEMENT

Student ______________________________ School ________________________

Firm ________________________________ Kind of Business ________________

This training agreement briefly describes the responsibilities of the student and the coordinator. It also confirms the consent of parent or guardian for the student to work and to study business/office occupations. The student is expected to observe the same regulations that apply to other employees of the firm. Furthermore, the student agrees to try to improve in skills, knowledges, and concepts, in order to be regarded as being an efficient worker and in being industrious both in studying at school and in working for the employer.

The training the student will receive in the business/office occupations classroom will be correlated with the experience received on the job, with the ultimate objective of preparing for the occupation of ___________________.

The employer recognizes that the program prepares students for careers in business/office work. The employer, therefore, will see that close supervision and instruction are given in each of the following areas of training in order to aid the student to reach the chosen occupational objectives.

_____________________ _____________________ _____________________

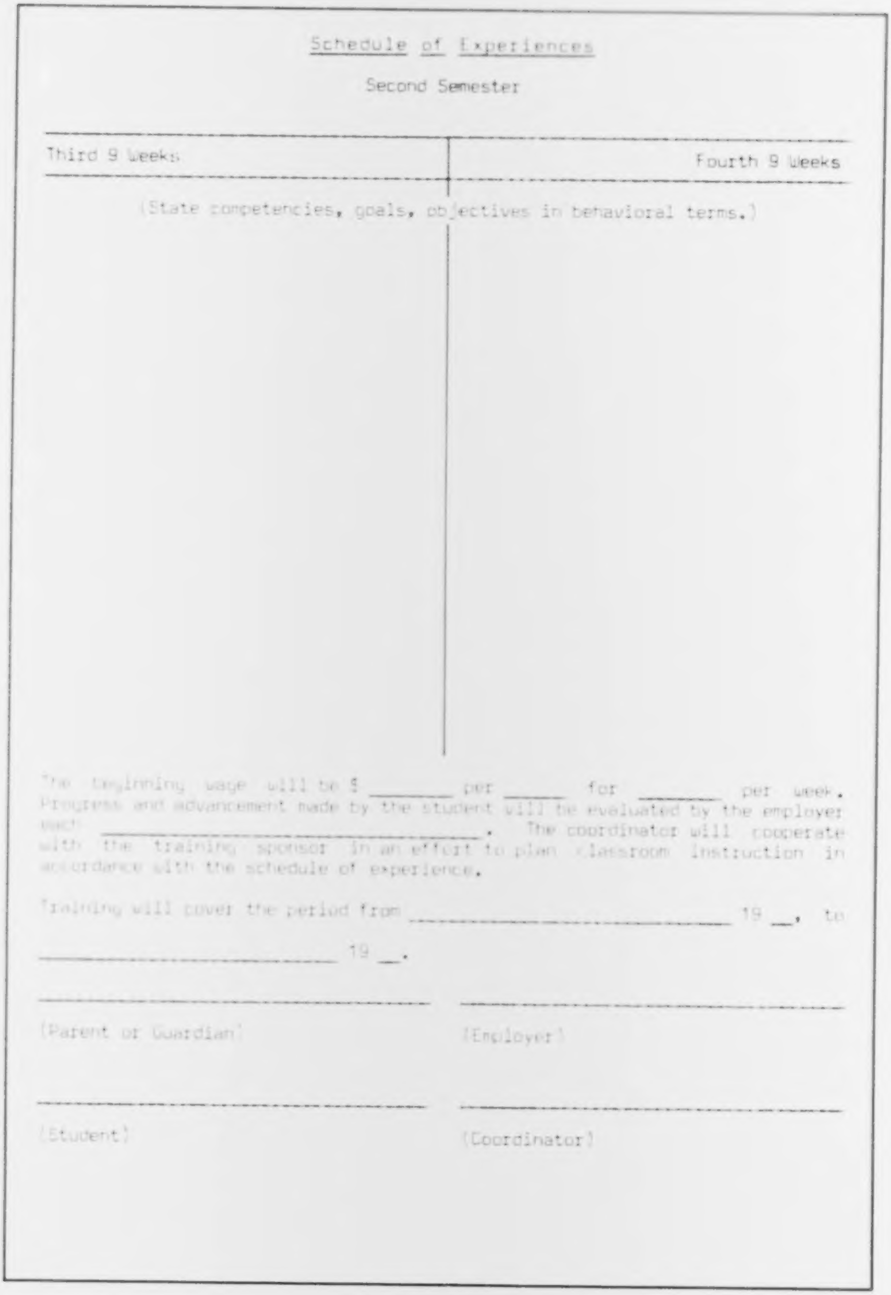
_____________________ _____________________ _____________________

Schedule of Experiences

First Semester

First 9 Weeks	Second 9 Weeks
(State competencies, goals, objectives in behavioral terms.)	

FIG. 18-2



Schedule of Experiences

Second Semester

Third 9 Weeks	Fourth 9 Weeks
(State competencies, goals, objectives in behavioral terms.)	

The beginning wage will be $ _______ per _____ for _______ per week. Progress and advancement made by the student will be evaluated by the employer each ______________________________. The coordinator will cooperate with the training sponsor in an effort to plan classroom instruction in accordance with the schedule of experience.

Training will cover the period from ____________________________ 19 __, to

________________________ 19 __.

______________________________ ______________________________

(Parent or Guardian) (Employer)

______________________________ ______________________________

(Student) (Coordinator)

FIG. 18-2 (Continued)

RELATED INSTRUCTION—CONTENT AND SEQUENCE

The related instruction content of the cooperative business education plan is derived from the four basic objectives outlined under the preceding heading. Disregarding the learnings that occur on the job and in other business classes, the learnings in the directly related class taught by the teacher-coordinator deal with three areas: (1) general learnings applicable to all occupations, (2) learnings common to all business occupations, and (3) learnings common only to the student-learners on the job and those needed to meet the student-learners' career objectives. The proportionate amount of time spent in the related class on each area of learning is best shown by Figure 18-3, representing one school year, with the greater proportion of class time (per week or month) being spent on general learnings, at the beginning. This is desirable because the students' skills are usually sufficient then to meet the demands of their employers. As the year progresses, the greater amount of time can be spent on learning new office procedures and improving the performance of those already learned. Notice that individual projects are scheduled throughout the year to help each student-learner meet the demands of the job. Assignments from group learning topics also should be made so that each student applies such learning to his/her job.

The general office procedures area is described well by the widely used office practice textbooks available from major publishers in business education. However, the textbook order of the topics will not be suitable for most related instruction topics. Topics should be sequenced according to the needs of the majority of the student-learners, as they arise from the students' present

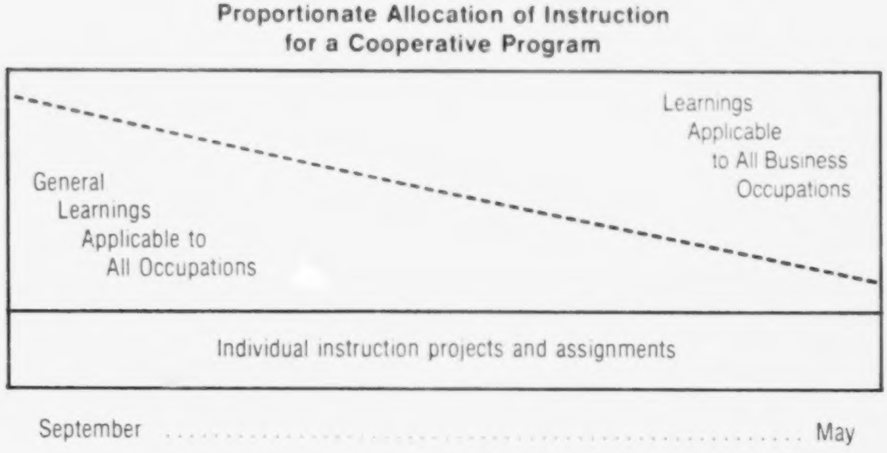

Proportionate Allocation of Instruction
for a Cooperative Program
Learnings Applicable to All Business Occupations
General Learnings Applicable to All Occupations
Individual instruction projects and assignments
September
May

FIG. 18-3 Sequence of instruction in the related class.

state of competency and their immediate job needs. For example, filing is typically an early assignment for most student-learners and should be taught early in the year in the related class.

"Filling out" the related instruction class.—School administrators, faced with demands for maintaining the teacher-student ratio, often wonder if the related class can be "filled out" with students who are not cooperative student-learners. Practically, this procedure is carried on as long as it involves only a few students. However, the practice is not desirable, because non-cooperative students do not have the motivation of the work responsibility, nor is it possible for them to apply their learnings to a work situation. Their presence usually dampens the instruction for the cooperative student-learners.

Equipping the related instruction classroom.—The directly related instruction for the cooperative business education plan should take place in a classroom especially designed and equipped to facilitate instruction in business occupations. A good deal of flexibility needs to be built into the classroom in order for related instruction to take care of both group and individual requirements and to provide practice in the multitude of procedures that the student-learners need. For example, if one or more of the student-learners are shorthand writers, then some type of practice equipment for speed-building, such as a tape recorder or a listening station, must be available for individual practice.

The classrooms used for preparing students with the business skills needed for today's information age must include state-of-the-art equipment. Considering the cost of information–word processing equipment and software, teachers must become very selective of the materials they purchase. For example, equipment purchases should be directed toward muti-use machines, such as microcomputers, rather than single-function, stand-alone word processors. Purchasing rarely used machines or machines that will soon be out-of-date, for example, stencil machines, fluid duplicators, and offset duplicators, is probably not a sound investment. Modern, up-to-date equipment is critical if students are to be prepared with the employment skills needed for today's and tomorrow's jobs.

The related instruction classroom can also be used for non-cooperative office practice classes to fill out the daily schedule and to secure maximum room utilization. The classroom is also useful for adult training and development classes and for training classes after regular school hours.

Outlines of instructional content for the related class in business education may be found in the manuals issued by vocational divisions of many state departments of education.

An office for the teacher-coordinator should be provided in an adjacent location. The necessary facilities should be planned with consultative help from state department and teacher education personnel and with advice and assistance from the advisory committee. Often a three- to five-year plan for acquisition of equipment and supplies will enable the administration to budget the necessary funds.

CASE-IN-POINT

Pat Shavloske and Rose White are student-learners in the office occupations program in Tempe, Arizona. They have the opportunity to include word processing in their training plans at their training stations.

Both have had typewriting instruction on electric typewriters, developing above average speed and accuracy. Their teacher-coordinator knows that there is little transition from the electric typewriter keyboard to the computer keyboard. Since both students have not had instruction in word processing, it is up to their teacher to work into their classroom instruction an opportunity for them to learn computer operation and to develop enough skill to be ready when called upon to do computer work at their training stations.

WordStar instructional manuals for computers are made available to the students. Time is provided for these two student-learners to obtain specific instruction on WordStar programming and computer operation in their cooperative related class. The manuals are written with direction that are easily followed, enabling the students to teach themselves, with some supervision and guidance from their teacher-coordinator. After their training station supervisors have advised them as to when they will be given computer work, their teacher-coordinator schedules specific classroom instruction in time for them to be ready to perform on the job.

Coordination Techniques

General principles of coordination for all cooperative plans were discussed in Chapters 6 through 9. This section concentrates on special problems of coordinating the business occupations education plan.

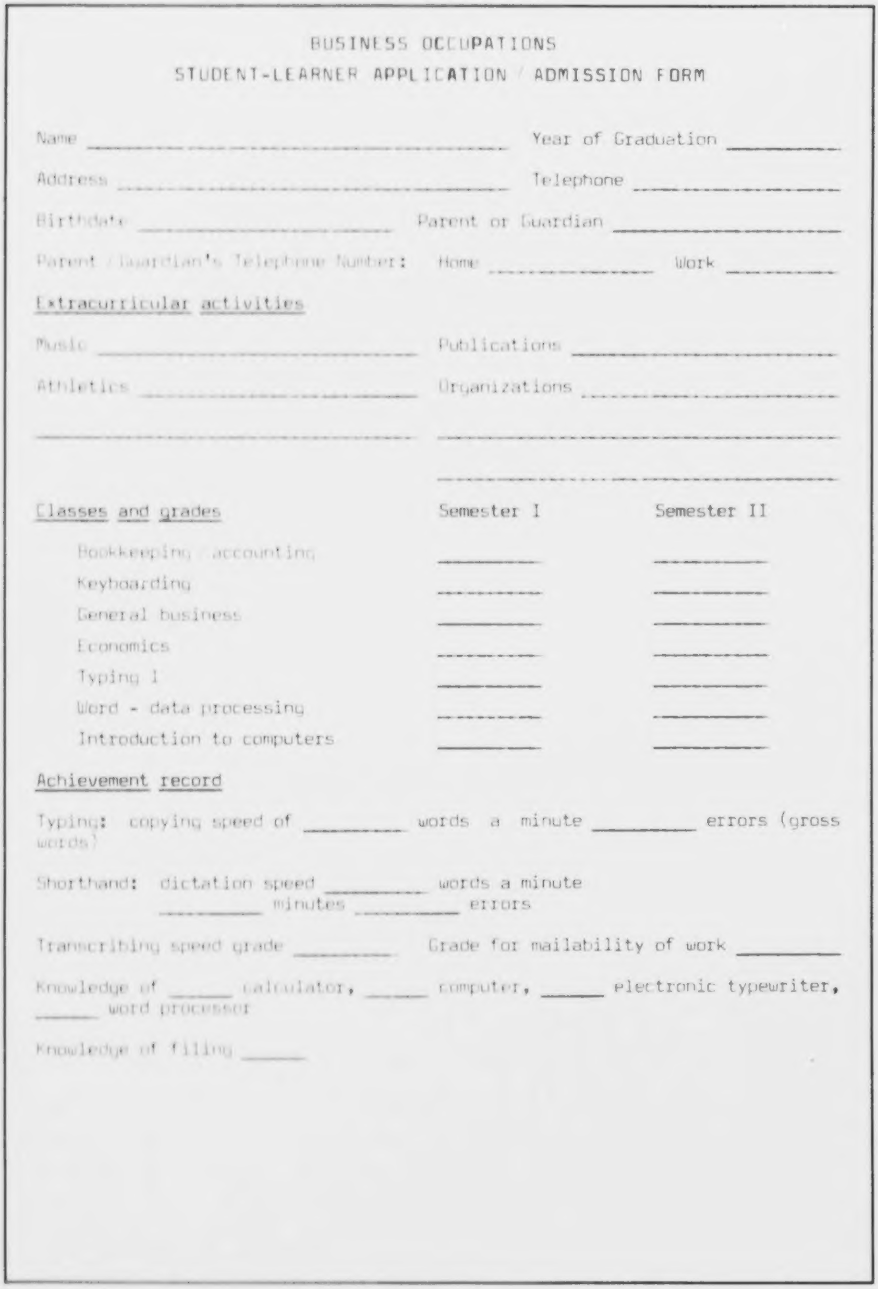
SELECTING STUDENT-LEARNERS

Business skills developed in school under controlled practice are vital to placement. Therefore, it is particularly important, in admitting students into the program to assess their performance in business classes to determine their business competency levels. In a course such as typing, it is important to know what the course grade was. Even more significant would be a reference from the typing teacher regarding which aspects of the skill are strong and which are weak. For example, a B student in beginning typing might be only average in speed but very accurate, thus boosting the number of words per minute on which the grade might have been primarily based. On the other hand that student might also be particularly strong, or weak, on tabulation problems. Thus, in order to make a proper placement, the teacher-coordinator needs to know not only the gross estimates of skills, but also the strengths of the component competencies.

Potential training station supervisors enjoy lunch together after an orientation session.

The teacher-coordinator should also acquire information about the students' attendance and punctuality, general academic aptitude, and career interests. Much of this can be obtained from the application/admission form (see Figure 18-4) the students complete and from interviews and personal data sheets (Figure 18-5). Other teachers who have previously had the students in class should be asked to comment on their work habits and attitudes, relationships with others, and career interests.

Particularly important for good placement in business occupations plans are the image the students present—an image of composure, self-confidence, inner tranquility—and the demeanor they display.



BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS
STUDENT-LEARNER APPLICATION / ADMISSION FORM

Name ______________________________ Year of Graduation __________

Address ______________________________ Telephone ______________

Birthdate ____________________ Parent or Guardian ________________

Parent / Guardian's Telephone Number: Home ____________ Work __________

Extracurricular activities

Music ______________________ Publications ____________________

Athletics ____________________ Organizations ___________________

__________________________ __________________________

____

Classes and grades

	Semester I	Semester II
Bookkeeping / accounting	________	________
Keyboarding	________	________
General business	________	________
Economics	________	________
Typing I	________	________
Word - data processing	________	________
Introduction to computers	________	________

Achievement record

Typing: copying speed of ________ words a minute ________ errors (gross words)

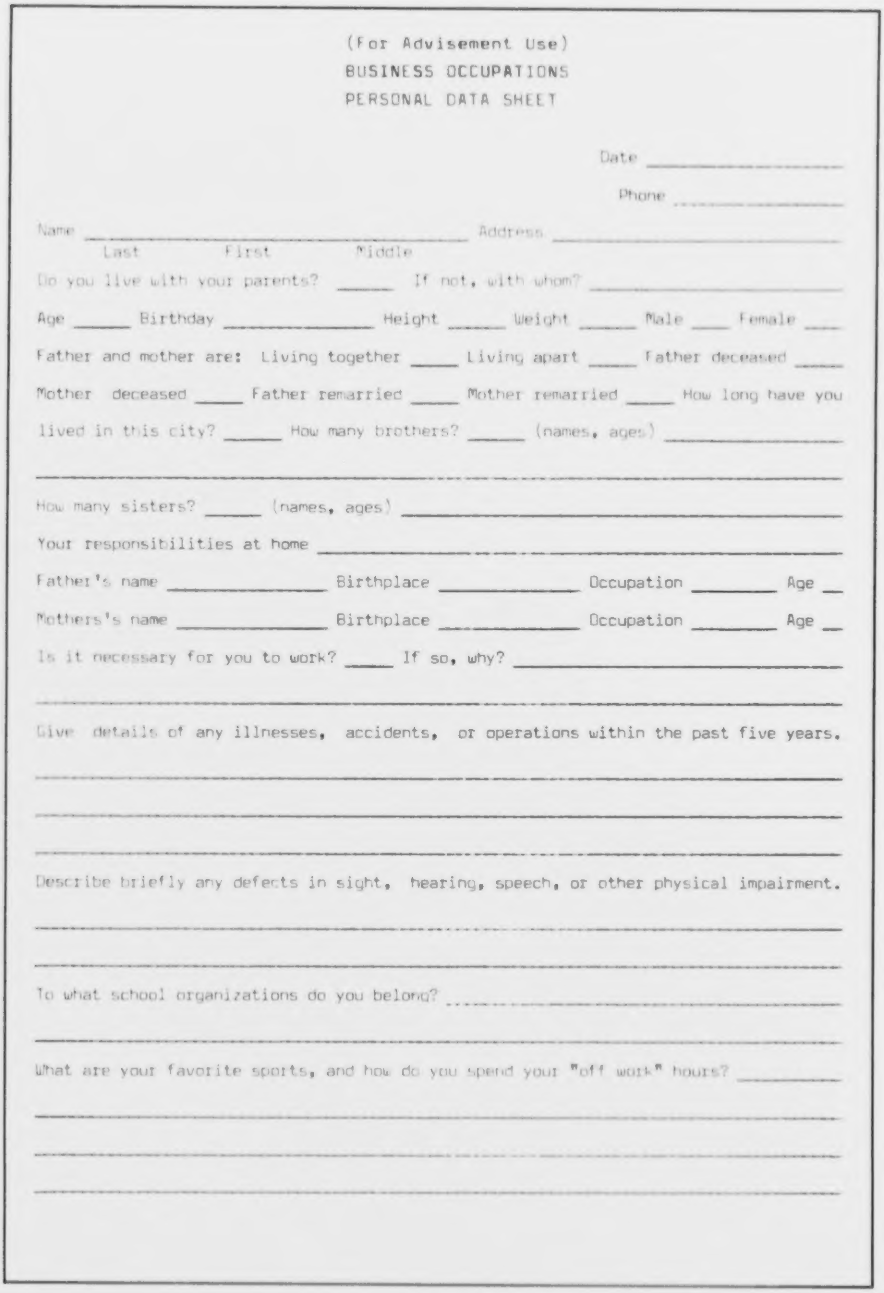
Shorthand: dictation speed ________ words a minute
________ minutes ________ errors

Transcribing speed grade ________ Grade for mailability of work ________

Knowledge of _____ calculator, _____ computer, _____ electronic typewriter, _____ word processor

Knowledge of filing _____

FIG. 18-4



(For Advisement Use)
BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS
PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Date ____________________

Phone ________________

Name ______________________________________ Address ____________________________
Last First Middle

Do you live with your parents? _____ If not, with whom? ________________________

Age _____ Birthday _______________ Height _____ Weight _____ Male ____ Female ____

Father and mother are: Living together ____ Living apart ____ Father deceased ____

Mother deceased ____ Father remarried ____ Mother remarried ____ How long have you

lived in this city? _____ How many brothers? _____ (names, ages) ________________

____

How many sisters? _____ (names, ages) ____

Your responsibilities at home ____

Father's name _______________ Birthplace _____________ Occupation ________ Age __

Mothers's name _______________ Birthplace _____________ Occupation ________ Age __

Is it necessary for you to work? ____ If so, why? _______________________________

____

Give details of any illnesses, accidents, or operations within the past five years.

____

____

____

Describe briefly any defects in sight, hearing, speech, or other physical impairment.

____

____

To what school organizations do you belong? _______________________________________

____

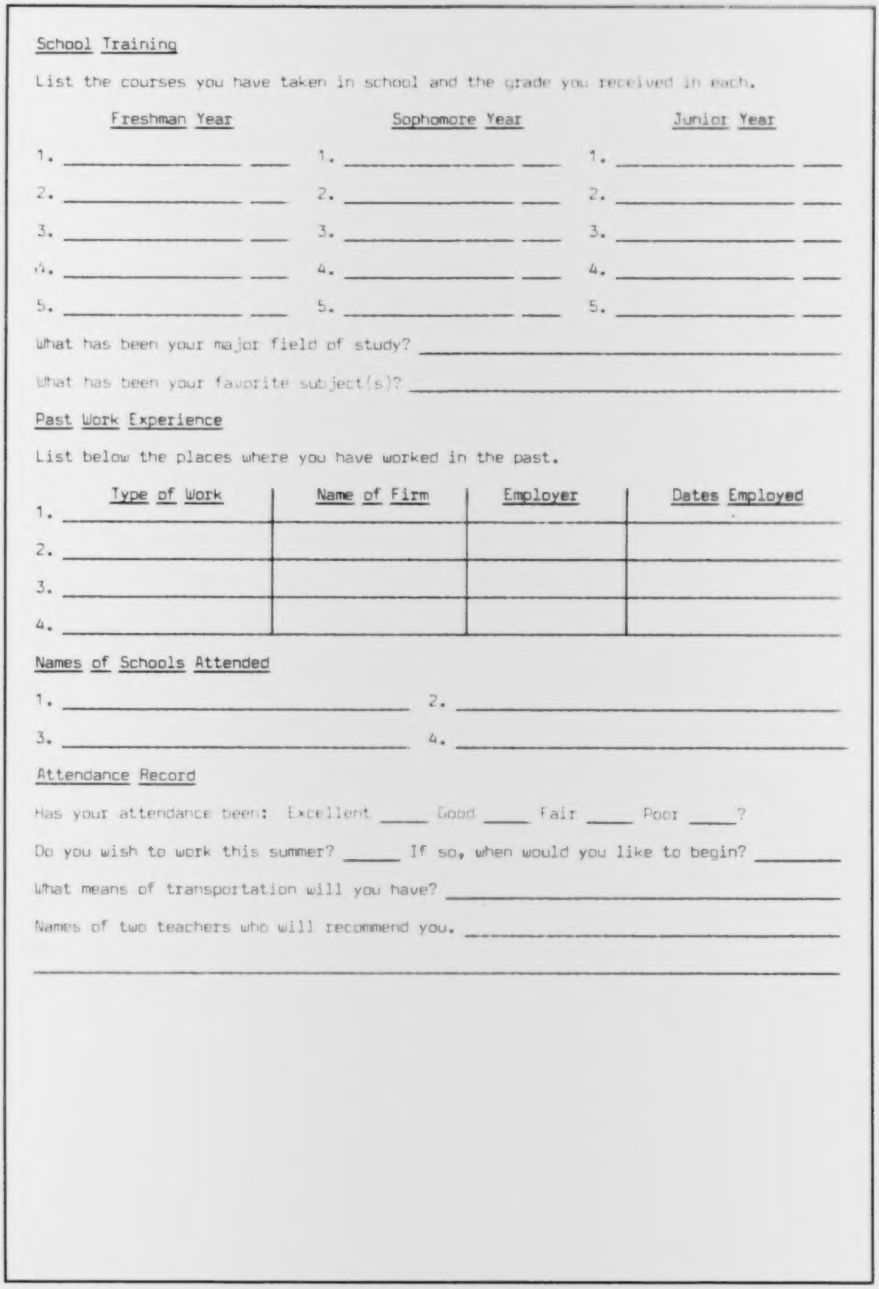
What are your favorite sports, and how do you spend your "off work" hours? _________

____

____

____

FIG 18-5



School Training

List the courses you have taken in school and the grade you received in each.

Freshman Year		Sophomore Year		Junior Year	
1. ______________	___	1. ______________	___	1. ______________	___
2. ______________	___	2. ______________	___	2. ______________	___
3. ______________	___	3. ______________	___	3. ______________	___
4. ______________	___	4. ______________	___	4. ______________	___
5. ______________	___	5. ______________	___	5. ______________	___

What has been your major field of study? ______________________________

What has been your favorite subject(s)? ______________________________

Past Work Experience

List below the places where you have worked in the past.

	Type of Work	Name of Firm	Employer	Dates Employed
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

Names of Schools Attended

1. ______________________ 2. ______________________

3. ______________________ 4. ______________________

Attendance Record

Has your attendance been: Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Poor _____?

Do you wish to work this summer? _____ If so, when would you like to begin? ________

What means of transportation will you have? ______________________________

Names of two teachers who will recommend you. ______________________________

____

FIG 18-5 (Continued)

Future Plans

College ____________ Marriage ____________ Career plans ____________

Military ____________

STUDENT: DO NOT FILL IN THE BLANKS BELOW.

SCHOOL RECORDS: Absences ____________ Tardinesses ____________

Grade average ____________ Best grade in ____________

Remarks: ____

____

____

____

FIG. 18-5 (Continued)

While many factors influence whether or not a student should be enrolled in the cooperative plan, the most important ones are: (1) the student must be genuinely interested in business employment and (2) the student must be motivated to learn the skills necessary to be successful in business employment.

FINDING APPROPRIATE TRAINING LABORATORY PLACEMENTS

Finding optimum occupational laboratory placements requires the careful matching of two sets of factors: (1) the current abilities of the student-learners, their capacity to grow, and their career objectives and (2) the variety of experiences available at the training stations, the beginning job standards, and the potential full-time employment possibilities. Placement in the cooperative business occupations education plan is somewhat different from that of other occupational fields because of the skills the cooperative business student-learners are expected to have upon initial job entry.

Consideration of the following factors will help facilitate placement.

1. Personality traits are very important in most office positions where employees work, often in close proximity to one another, for long periods of time and where work assignments are often closely interdependent. Thus, compatability of the personalities of the student-workers and the prospective job sponsors and co-workers needs careful consideration. The experienced teacher-coordinator is aware that some office workers may be jealous and may view the students as a threat to themselves.
2. Very small offices frequently offer a more extensive variety of learning experiences and more responsibility than some larger offices, unless they adhere to a careful rotation schedule. On the other hand, in small offices, training and supervision may be less effective and performance standards not as highly organized. The office in which the student-learner is the only employee offers the student a chance to exercise independence and responsibility, but supervision may be almost entirely lacking.
3. Very large offices usually provide the student-learners the opportunity to try out, or at least to observe, operations that may not be present in smaller offices. For example, the large firms may have a data processing unit or a word processing center. Very large offices usually offer the advantage of more rapid advancement because of more personnel turnover.
4. Teacher-coordinators should not rule out placements in unusual sit-

uations—offices that are not well decorated or those that are in out-of-the-way locations in buildings; for example, good placements may exist in the offices in trucking terminals, warehouses, and small factories and job shops.

5. Teacher-coordinators should consider the possibility of building the business program around two sets of trainees, a morning group and an afternoon group. Thus, the employers have the advantage of keeping their work situations fully occupied. Even in some small schools where training stations are limited, teacher-coordinators may utilize this procedure if the non-business courses needed and the related class can be scheduled.

In making placements, teacher-coordinators should be fully cognizant of the nature of business occupations and should avoid placements where the duties are primarily non-office, such as marketing or industrial. Although business occupations exist in many types of businesses, only those jobs that require *primarily* competencies in recording, storing, reproducing, and communicating information can be termed business occupations.

USING THE STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN

The step-by-step training plan is derived jointly by the teacher-coordinator and the training station sponsor from a realistic analysis of the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the student-learner on the part-time job. The development of specific training plans, together with follow-up activities, is one of the most important responsibilities of teacher-coordinators. The teacher-coordinator must carefully analyze the job skills needed by the student-worker on the job daily, weekly, monthly, or occasionally. Thus, the teacher-coordinator should be able to (1) eliminate the teaching of unnecessary skills, (2) spend more time assisting the students to acquire those skills essential for success on the job, and (3) sequence the related instruction so that it truly prepares and reinforces the on-the-job experiences.

If effectively carried out, the training plan makes the cooperative business education approach sharply distinctive from an unsupervised work experience program. The training plan makes a specific attempt to relate classroom instruction to on-the-job training and to allow students to gain all the potential learning advantages therefrom. It serves as the basis for guiding student-learners through worthwhile educational experiences on the job. It indicates the specific objective to be achieved and whether it is to be stressed in the related classroom or at the training station, or both, and whether or not the student organization can further enhance the skill development (see Figure 18-1). By identifying those competencies in which the student organization can provide the opportunity for development, the plan emphasizes the importance of the student organization as an integral part of the instructional program.

GUIDING THE BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS STUDENT ORGANIZATION

The general principles of establishing student organizations are presented in Chapter 14, wherein both national business student organizations, FBLA and BPA, are discussed. Included in this section are some specific activities for the business occupations student organization. BPA members with a variety of business skills will find numerous opportunities for the application of their special career interests, ranging from management of the chapter's records to word processing and office administrative skills to accounting and financial management. The FBLA provides its members with countless opportunities to increase their understanding of the content of the business classroom. Whether the organization is a local program or one affiliated with a national association, the student organization is a vital part of the total education process. The vast majority of the goals and objectives of business education are compatible to those of any student organization and the student organization's activities reinforce and expand the important concepts taught in the classroom.

The student organization's activity program should involve community resources to further instructional outcomes. For example, speakers can be invited to discuss topics such as (1) color and design in the modern office, (2) reasons for joining the American Business Club or the Business and Professional Women's Club, (3) requirements for becoming a certified professional secretary or a CPA (certified professional accountant), (4) ways to develop composure and self-assurance, and (5) effects of electronic communications on office jobs. Businesspersons can demonstrate proper business etiquette (grooming and attire). The student organization can undertake surveys of the types of jobs available in businesses in the community, or it can offer consultative advice on office accounting procedures to the marketing education and industrial education student organizations.

Activities that could provide financing for student organization functions might include: (1) preparing programs, for a fee, on reprographic machines for civic or professional clubs; (2) holding a bake sale in the school cafeteria or in the lobby of a cooperating business; (3) carrying out a cooperative effort

Cooperative business education students visit a training station to observe data processing in action. (Courtesy, Graphics Department, McIntire Educational Media Center, Michigan City, Indiana)

with the marketing education or the industrial education student organization, in which the special talents of the student-workers could be utilized; and (4) holding D.J. dances after ballgames.

Evaluation Procedures

When evaluating student-learners, teacher-coordinators of the cooperative business education plan have two different tasks. First, they must evaluate the student-learners' performance, and second, they must evaluate the total plan. Evaluation of the total plan is discussed in Chapter 15.

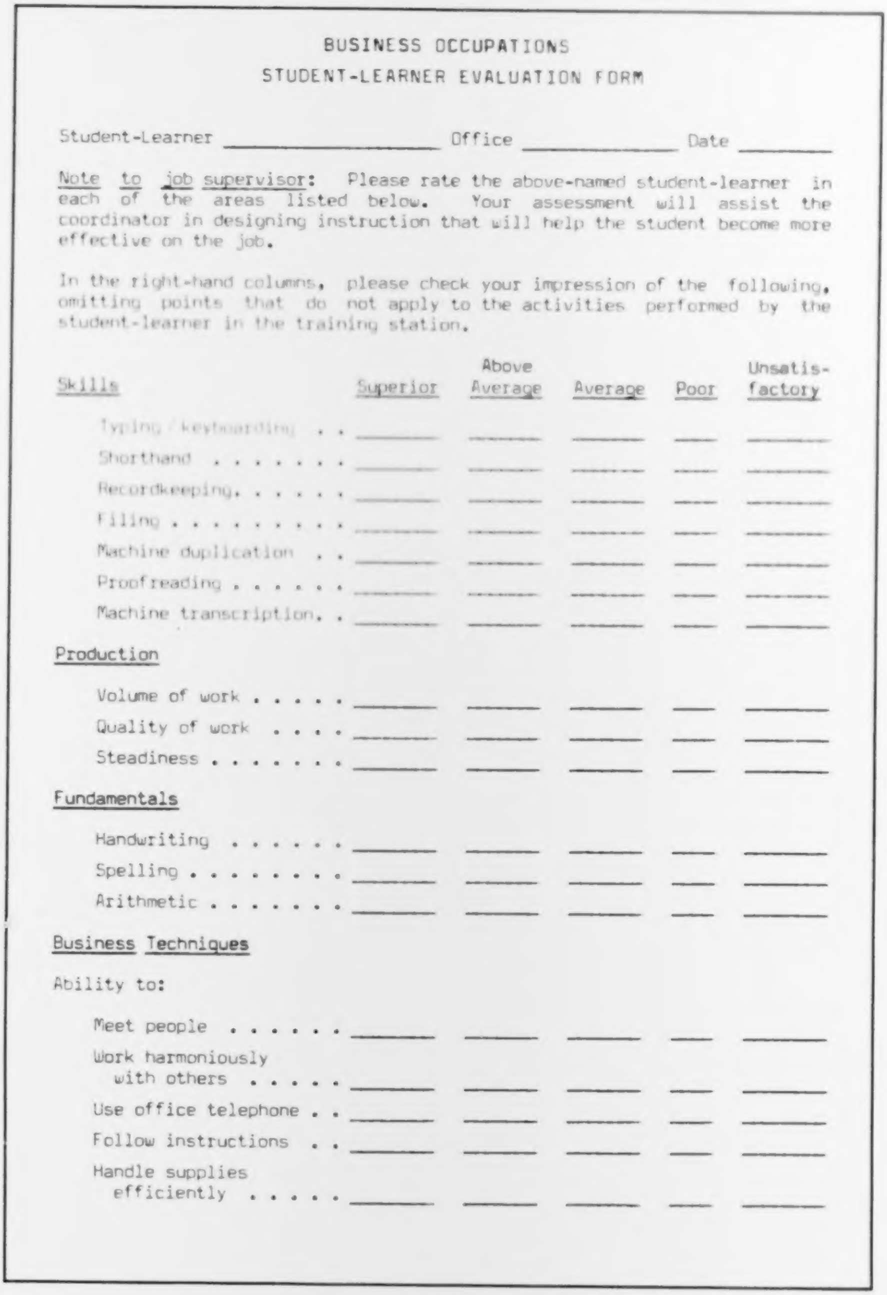
EVALUATING THE STUDENT-LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE

Evaluation of the student-learners' related classroom instruction is based upon their total class performance, including (1) written subject matter assignments, (2) work completed in assigned manuals, (3) oral presentations, and (4) other individual and group projects designed for learning various business functions and for operating specialized equipment. The evaluation of the student-learners' on-the-job learning and classroom performance is based on observations of the teacher-coordinator and on the student-learner evaluation completed by the training station sponsor.

The evaluation can be a part of the training plan, as it is in Figure 18-1. The evaluation to be completed by the training sponsor allows the job supervisor to rate the student's performance with regard to each competence identified in the training plan. Some schools have developed a separate evaluation form and ask the training sponsor to rate the student-worker. Figures 18-6 and 18-7 are examples of such evaluation forms.

In the cooperative business occupations education plan, particular attention in evaluation should be paid to both the quantity and the quality of performance. Many business skills can be measured quite accurately, and any deficiencies described well. Therefore, teacher-coordinators should tell student-learners in which skill(s) they are performing below standard. For example, if a student types letters well, except for sub-standard corrections, the teacher-coordinator should tell the student that his/her correction techniques need to be improved, rather than the letter needs improvement. If a student's telephone technique is faulty, the teacher-coordinator should tell the student that his/her voice is not loud enough, or pleasant enough, or that his/her manner is too abrupt. In addition to evaluating skill competency, the teacher-coordinator also should evaluate the student-workers on their ability to solve problems. Are they able to put skills together to accomplish a task?

Evaluation as part of coordination visit.—Generally speaking, during each coordination visit, the teacher-coordinator should prepare an evaluation. Since it is customary for the teacher-coordinator to calculate coordination time on the basis of one-half hour per student per week, the evaluation report should be short and precise. The frequency of coordination visits to the job training site depends on the needs of the student, the characteristics of the training station and the training position, the time of the year (more frequent visits are made at the beginning of the school year than later in the year when the student-worker is well established on the training job). An example of an evaluation form to be completed on a coordination visit is presented in Figure 18-8. This form is designed to be used on each coordination visit during the semester. The teacher-coordinator lists the job tasks observed and/or discussed and rates the student's performance in doing each job task. At the end of the school year and/or semester, the student's on-the-job performance can quickly be determined according to the teacher-coordinator's coordination assessment. The teacher-coordinator's rating can then be compared to the em-



BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS
STUDENT-LEARNER EVALUATION FORM

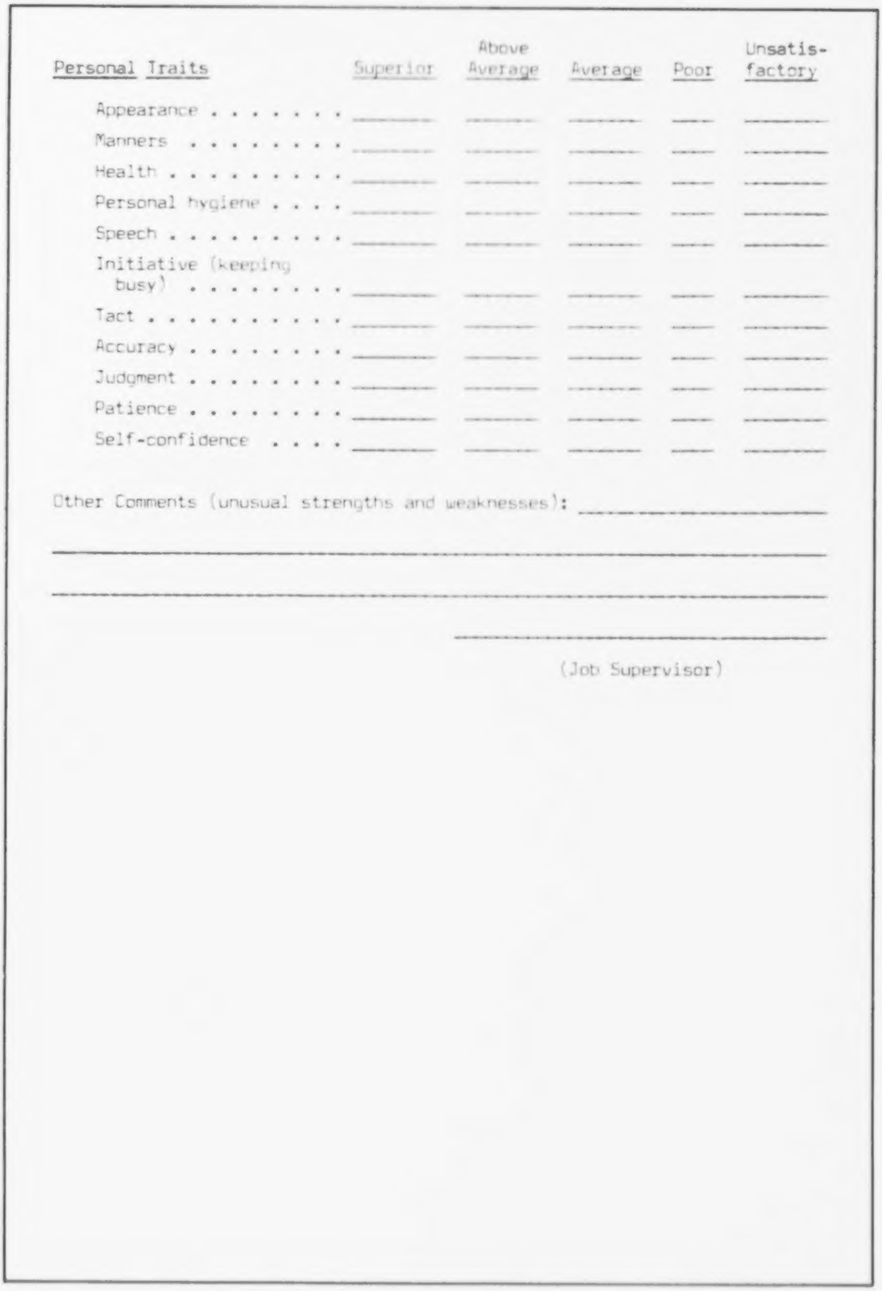
Student-Learner ____________________ Office ______________ Date _________

Note to job supervisor: Please rate the above-named student-learner in each of the areas listed below. Your assessment will assist the coordinator in designing instruction that will help the student become more effective on the job.

In the right-hand columns, please check your impression of the following, omitting points that do not apply to the activities performed by the student-learner in the training station.

Skills	Superior	Above Average	Average	Poor	Unsatis-factory
Typing/keyboarding . .					
Shorthand					
Recordkeeping.					
Filing					
Machine duplication . .					
Proofreading					
Machine transcription. .					
Production					
Volume of work					
Quality of work					
Steadiness					
Fundamentals					
Handwriting					
Spelling					
Arithmetic					
Business Techniques					
Ability to:					
Meet people					
Work harmoniously with others					
Use office telephone . .					
Follow instructions . .					
Handle supplies efficiently					

FIG. 18-6



Personal Traits	Superior	Above Average	Average	Poor	Unsatisfactory
Appearance					
Manners					
Health					
Personal hygiene					
Speech					
Initiative (keeping busy)					
Tact					
Accuracy					
Judgment					
Patience					
Self-confidence					

Other Comments (unusual strengths and weaknesses): ____________________

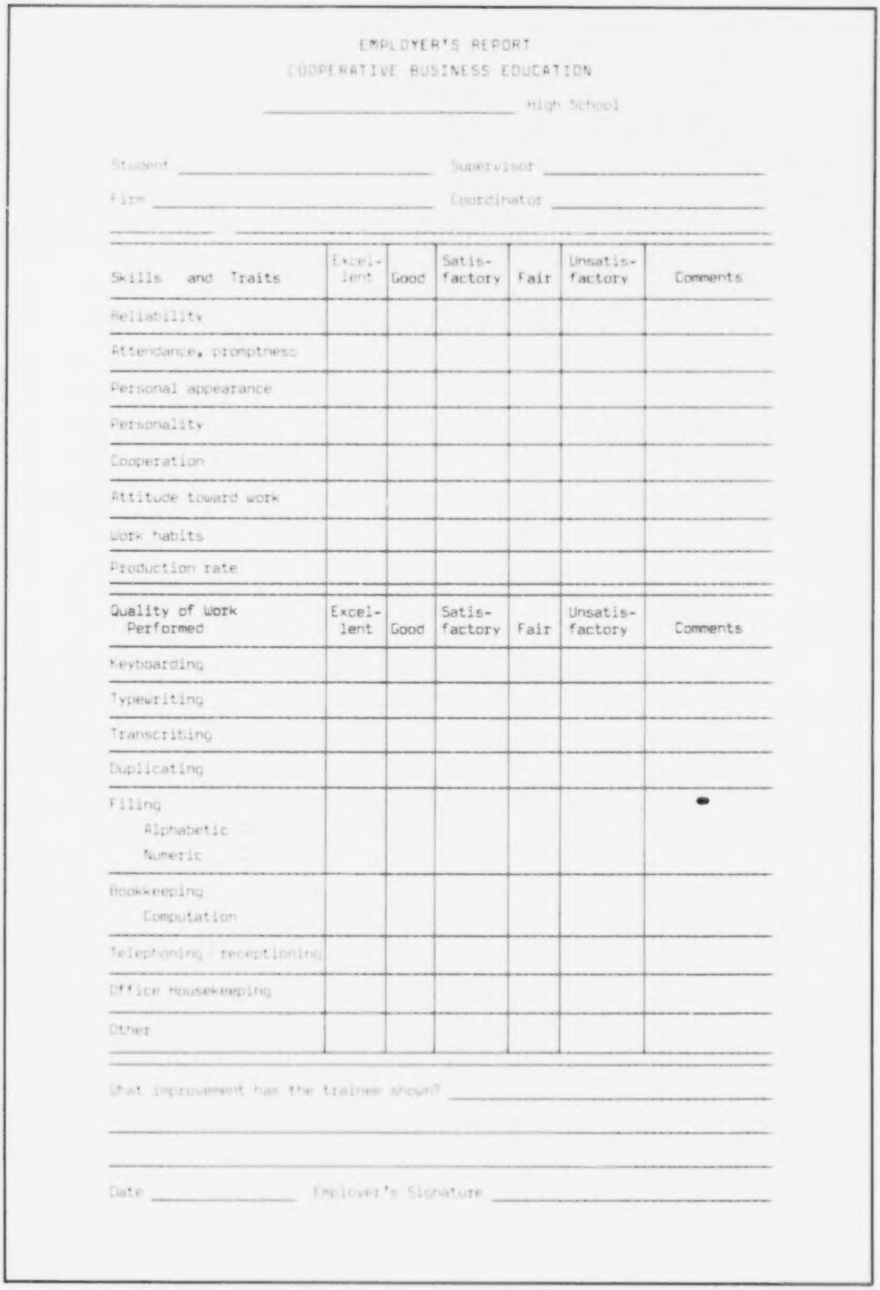
____

____

____

(Job Supervisor)

FIG. 18-6 (Continued)



EMPLOYER'S REPORT
COOPERATIVE BUSINESS EDUCATION
____________________ High School

Student ____________________ Supervisor ____________________
Firm ____________________ Coordinator ____________________

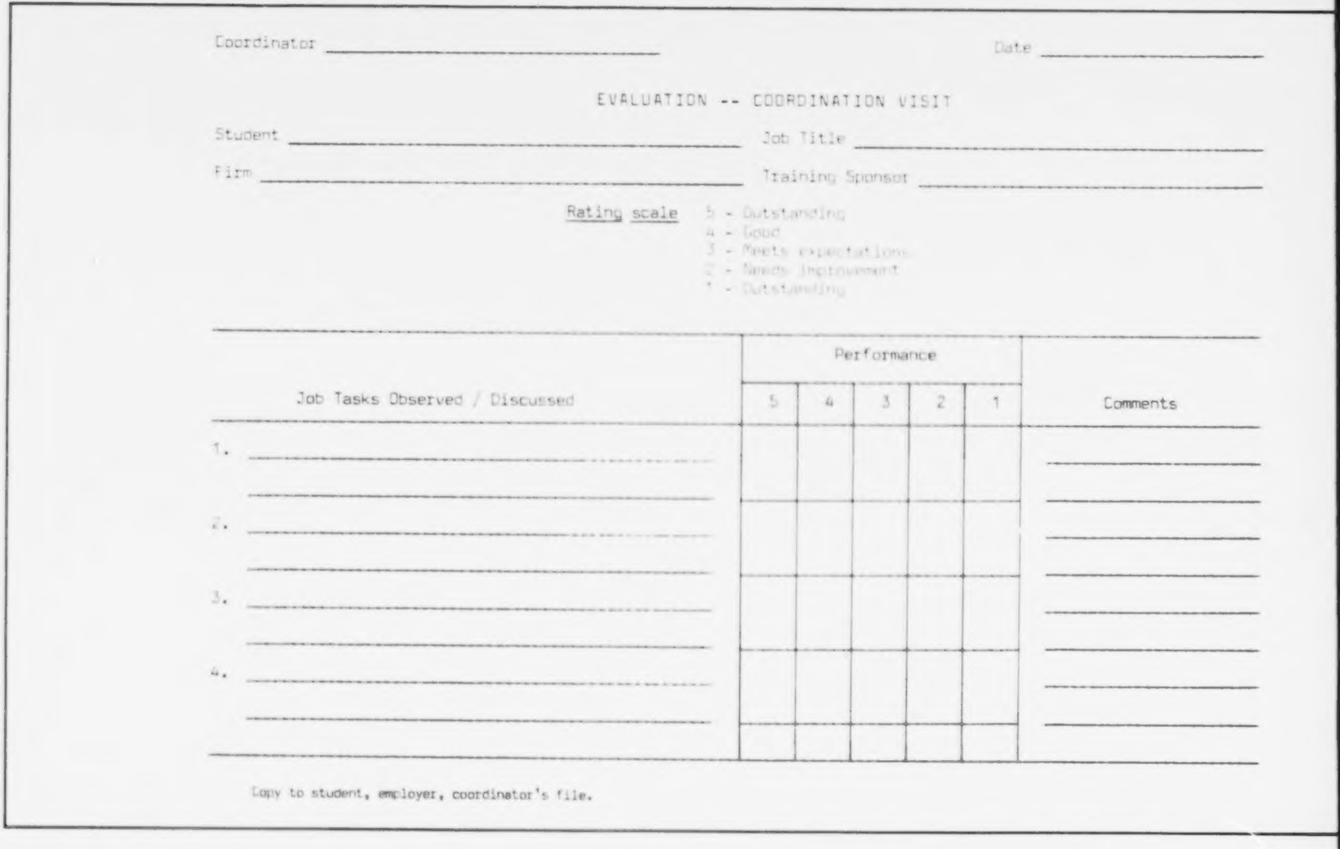
Skills and Traits	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Fair	Unsatisfactory	Comments
Reliability						
Attendance, promptness						
Personal appearance						
Personality						
Cooperation						
Attitude toward work						
Work habits						
Production rate						

Quality of Work Performed	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Fair	Unsatisfactory	Comments
Keyboarding						
Typewriting						
Transcribing						
Duplicating						
Filing Alphabetic Numeric						
Bookkeeping Computation						
Telephoning / receptioning						
Office Housekeeping						
Other						

What improvement has the trainee shown? ____________________

Date __________ Employer's Signature ____________________

FIG. 18-7



Coordinator ______________________ Date ______________

EVALUATION -- COORDINATION VISIT

Student ______________________ Job Title ______________

Firm ______________________ Training Sponsor ______________

Rating scale
5 - Outstanding
4 - Good
3 - Meets expectations
2 - Needs improvement
1 - Outstanding

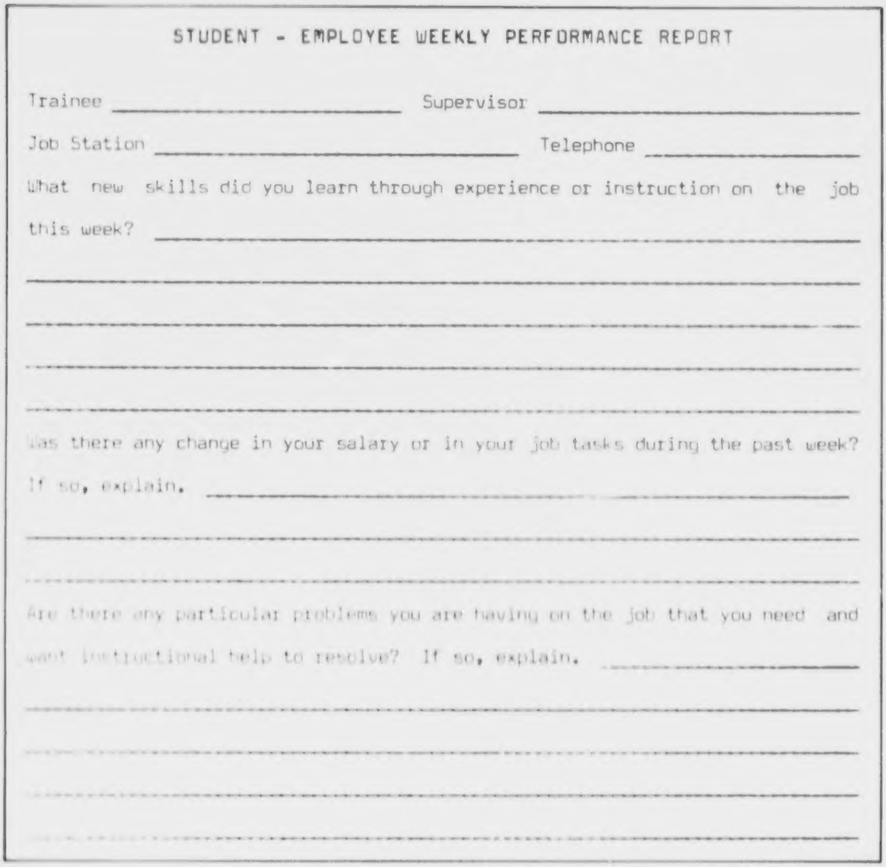
Job Tasks Observed / Discussed	Performance					Comments
	5	4	3	2	1	
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						

Copy to student, employer, coordinator's file.

FIG 18-8

ployer's rating. The student's grade for the on-the-job phase of the cooperative education plan should be based upon both the teacher-coordinator's and the employer's assessment of the student's performance and achievement.

Student's self-evaluation.—Some teacher-coordinators have their student-learners complete a weekly performance report, which can be signed by the on-the-job training supervisor. These reports can assist the teacher-coordinator in identifying the student-worker's strengths and weaknesses. Such information, being prepared by the student, is especially important in modifying and refining the teaching-learning sequence. This information can assist the teacher-coordinator in tailoring the related instruction to better correlate to the student-worker's on-the-job tasks. Figure 18-9 is an example of a student-employee weekly performance report.



STUDENT - EMPLOYEE WEEKLY PERFORMANCE REPORT

Trainee ______________________ Supervisor ______________________

Job Station ______________________ Telephone ______________

What new skills did you learn through experience or instruction on the job this week? ______________________

____

____

____

____

Was there any change in your salary or in your job tasks during the past week? If so, explain. ______________________

____

____

Are there any particular problems you are having on the job that you need and want instructional help to resolve? If so, explain. ______________

____

____

____

____

FIG. 18-9

Sources of Instructional Materials

Glencoe Publishing Co., Inc.
17337 Ventura Boulevard
Encino, California 91316

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
1250 Sixth Avenue
San Diego, California 92101

Houghton Mifflin Co.
TSC Division
P.O. Box 683
Hanover, New Hampshire 03755

The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc.
19 North Jackson Street
Box 50
Danville, Illinois 61834

McGraw-Hill Book Co.
Gregg Division
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10020

Prentice-Hall, Inc.
Educational Books Division
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Wadsworth Publishing Co.
10 Davis Drive
Belmont, California 94002

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
605 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10158

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a 10-minute talk that you could give before a business group, such as the local chapter of the Administrative Management Society, explaining the cooperative business education plan. Prepare some charts, transparencies, or other visual aids that you could use.
2. From your state plan for vocational education, determine the educational and occupational experience requirements necessary for certification as a business education coordinator.
3. Using census data or information from your state employment service, prepare a brief forecast report for business occupations in your county in the next decade.
4. Some authorities have claimed that office practice classes generally have been too skill-oriented or too machine operations–oriented and that more time should be devoted to human relations skills, office concepts, office systems, etc. Do you agree? Explain your answer. Would the cooperative related class more likely be different? Explain your answer.
5. If two sections of the related class are taught, would homogeneous grouping, such as clerical and word processing, provide more effective instruction? Explain your answer.
6. Prepare a sample set of forms that you feel you could use in a cooperative education plan: job performance rating sheet, weekly report form, student application/admission form, etc.
7. The text suggests that in some instances the cooperative related class can substitute for other courses that the student-learner might have taken. Show by specific learning experiences what topics and practice activities might be shifted from other courses to the related class.
8. Prepare a list of job tasks and behaviors that a teacher-coordinator could use in evaluating a student's on-the-job performance.
9. Assume that you are the chairperson of a district-wide task force of teacher-coordinators responsible for developing a cooperative business education student handbook. Prepare a list of topics you would include in such a handbook and then prepare in final draft form two of the handouts that would be included.

10 "A competency-based cooperative business education plan must be the basis for delivering education in the information age." Do you agree? Explain your answer.

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

19

The Plan in Health Occupations

Equipment that is available in the laboratory should be representative of what the student-learner uses at the training station.

KEY CONCEPT: *Health occupations encompass those career areas that provide services to individuals in need of health care. They include direct patient-care and supportive services.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify and list appropriate training station and career objectives available in health occupations.
- Understand how to develop an appropriate curriculum for a local plan in cooperative occupational education for health occupations.
- List the major sources of instructional materials for health occupations education.
- Understand how to devise appropriate training plans for students at various training stations.
- Evaluate other student-learners in the classroom and on the job.
- Describe student-learner benefits gained from membership in HOSA.

Health Occupations Education

Health occupations encompass those career areas that provide services to individuals in need of health care. They include direct patient-care and supportive services. Employment in this discipline is available in a wide variety of settings: health-care facilities (hospitals, nursing homes, and extended-care facilities), community health service agencies, and professional offices.

The Dictionary of Occupational Titles lists more than 300 job classifications under the "Health Related Occupations" category. Preparation for these careers may be offered in a number of educational settings. Some are located in high schools, vocational–technical schools, community–junior colleges, four-year colleges, and private career schools. Hospitals also offer specific technical programs in addition to on-the-job training.

When educational administrators are determining the kinds of programs to be offered, they need to consider the following factors: student needs, community needs, and employer needs.

Student needs.—Opportunities should be available for students to enroll in programs that develop concepts and related skills to prepare them for health careers. This preparation must be realistic to the student's abilities, interests, job opportunities, career mobility, continued education, and advancement possibilities.

Community needs.—Competent health workers are needed to assist in providing quality health care for the local citizens.

Employer needs.—Health occupations program that prepare individuals to be competent employees are needed.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM CLUSTERS

The health occupations education CIP Code 17.00 00 00 includes the following clusters:[1]

17.00	Allied Health
17.01	Dental Services
17.02	Diagnostic and Treatment Services
17.03	Medical Laboratory Technologies
17.04	Mental Health/Human Services
17.05	Miscellaneous Allied Health Services

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[1] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*, Vocational–Technical Education Programs, National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, p. 7

17.06 Nursing Related Services
17.07 Ophthalmic Services
17.08 Rehabilitation Services
17.99 Allied Health, Other

JOB OPPORTUNITIES

Job opportunities in health occupations are many and varied in nature. The following list indicates the breadth of the health occupations field and illustrates by descriptive title that preparation for many of the positions requires knowledge and background in disciplines other than health.

Patient-Care Services

Nursing Services

- Registered nurses
- LPN's/LVN's
- Nurses' aides/attendants
- Orderlies
- Burn unit technicians
- Pediatric technicians
- Homemaker/home health aides
- Emergency medical technicians
- Obstetrical technicians

Mental Health Services

- Mental health technicians
- Mental health assistants
- Mental deficiencies technicians
- Psychiatric technicians
- Psychiatric aides/assistants
- Occupational therapy aides
- Recreational therapy aides

Diagnostic Services

- Certified laboratory assistants
- Medical laboratory technicians
- Laboratory aides
- Cytotechnologists
- Histological technicians
- Electro-cardiagraphic technicians
- Electro-encephlegraphic technicians
- Pulmonary function technicians
- Radiological technologists

Physical Rehabilitation Services

- Physical therapy assistants
- Physical therapy aides/orderlies
- Ortho-prosthetic technicians
- Podiatric assistants
- Certified respiratory therapy technicians
- Respiratory therapy aides
- Respiratory therapist

Ancillary Services

- Urologic physicians' assistants
- Operating room technicians
- Surgical aides/assistants
- Central service aides/assistants
- Orthopedic cast specialists
- Pharmacy aides/assistants
- Housekeeping workers

Dietary Services

- Dietetic aides
- Dietary technicians

Dental-Care Services

Direct Patient Contact Services

- Dental assistants
- Oral surgery dental assistants
- Pedodontic dental assistants
- Endodontic dental assistants
- Expanded duties dental assistants

Indirect Patient Services

- Dental receptionists
- Dental laboratory technicians
- Dental assistant

Medical and Clerical Services

Medical Records Services

- Medical transcribers
- Medical stenographers
- Medical dental secretaries
- Medical librarian assistants
- Medical records clerks
- Medical records technicians
- Insurance clerks

Clinical Services

- Ward unit clerks
- Ward secretaries
- Medical assistants

Animal-Care Services

Nursing Services

- Veterinary assistants
- Groomers
- Cage-care attendants

Diagnostic Services

- Veterinary lab assistants
- Veterinary X-ray assistants

Auxiliary Services

- Receptionists
- Record keepers

CURRICULUM

Units of related subject matter, or groups of related courses, and planned experiences designed to impart knowledge and to develop understandings and skills required to support the health professions make up the curriculum for health occupations education. Instruction is organized to prepare students for meeting those occupational objectives concerned with assisting qualified personnel in providing diagnostic, therapeutic, preventive, restorative, and rehabilitative services, including those understandings and skills essential to health care and health services to patients.

The curriculum in health occupations is usually arranged according to one of three options—single occupation, cluster program, or sequential program.

Single occupation option.—Preparation for entry into a specific single occupation is the major purpose of the single occupation option. Educational programs may range from short-term ones to long-term ones leading to an associate degree. The program for secondary students may extend from one class period per day to one-half of the school day. Some post-secondary programs may lead to certification and/or licensure. Examples of single occupation positions are respiratory therapy aide, dental assistant, and dental laboratory technician.

Cluster program option.—The cluster program option at the secondary level is structured to present a core of knowledges and skills common to several health occupations. Upon completion of the core curriculum, students continue the rest of their studies in the single occupation for which they have shown both aptitude and interest. The goal of the cluster program is to provide students with an orientation within the total health field, an exploration of several related health occupations, and marketable skills upon graduation. For administrators it affords flexibility in planning and the opportunity to adapt to student, school, and community needs. The cluster curriculum is based on an "open-entry, open-exit" semester concept. An example follows.

Level I

Health Occupations I

Overview and Orientation to the Health Field
(1–2 periods for one semester, grades 9–12)

Health Occupations II

Career Planning
(1–2 periods for one semester, grades 9–12)

Level II

Health Occupations III

Sub-cluster Exploration
(2 periods for two semesters, grades 10–12)

Level III

Health Occupations IV

Job Preparation or Category Exploration
(3 periods for two semesters, grades 11–12, in-school and extended laboratory)

Level IV

Job Preparation
(3 periods for two semesters, grade 12, in-school, extended, or cooperative placement)

In the cluster program, students should enter Level I in the ninth grade and complete Level IV in the twelfth grade. It is possible, however, for twelfth grade students to select only one semester of Level I and still acquire competencies for specific job titles.

In the Dade County Public Schools, in Miami, Florida, cooperative health occupations is a one-year program for seniors designed to provide the students with the knowledges and skills necessary to function as nonprofessional employees in the field of health occupations and services.

Training facilities, including hospitals, nursing homes, veterinary clinics, and doctors' and dentists' offices, cooperate in providing training stations. Typical areas of training include nurse's aide, physician's aide, veterinarian assistant, and radiological aide. Some programs organize instruction under the single occupation option and/or the cluster program option.

A typical schedule for a student in cooperative health occupations is as follows:

Period	*Course*	*Credit*
1	General Related Study	1
2	CHO Specific Related Study	1
3	U.S. Government	1
4	English IV	1
5	On-the-Job Training	1
6	On-the-Job Training	1

Sequential program option.—The sequential program begins in the ninth grade with a general exploratory plan of one class period per day to acquaint students with the wide variety of opportunities in health occupations. This continues in the tenth grade on a one-class-period basis. Foundation courses, such as "Elementary Body Structure and Function," "Nutrition," and "Understanding Human Behavior," are coupled with exposure to health-care facilities on an observational basis. In the eleventh grade, students enroll in the single occupation or the cluster program. The twelfth grade is designed as a cooperative education plan. This sequence may be adapted to meet the specific needs of students, as well as those of the school and the community. The goal, obviously, is to prepare students for saleable skills upon graduation.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES/PATTERNS

An essential part of each option—single occupation, cluster program, or sequential program—is planned supervised experience in the clinical setting, as well as in-school learning. Health occupations education utilize in-school laboratories, extended laboratories, and the cooperative plan.

In-school laboratories are used to simulate the actual working conditions found in the various health occupations. The facilities and equipment are representative of clinical equipment. Students work in the in-school laboratory just as they would in a real job situation. Some in-school laboratories even provide patient services. In these laboratories, the vocational students assist the professionals.

The use of extended laboratories is a unique instructional procedure of health occupations education. The school uses actual health facilities as a laboratory, usually for a short specified time. The vocational health instructor and the students travel from the school to the extended laboratory facility in the community for a preplanned educational experience. Then, the students return to the classroom for additional study. These activities are coordinated and evaluated by the school instructor. During extended laboratory experiences, instruction and supervision may be done on a group or one-to-one basis. Specific predetermined learning objectives provide structure to the extended laboratory experiences.

In the cooperative plan, students acquire on-the-job training through employment in local health agency training stations. Students are placed in training stations where they can receive supervised experience in the occupations they have chosen. The students are employed for a minimum average of 15 hours a week, under an on-the-job supervisor, for the school year. This is

CASE-IN-POINT

Carolyn Hollar, a high school sophomore, volunteered her services at Union Hospital on weekends to deliver flowers, gifts, water, and reading material to patients. She enjoyed making sick people happy. The activities of the orderlies, laboratory technicians, and nurses appealed to her. Carolyn chatted with the school nurse about the nurse's background and training. The nurse suggested a contact with the guidance counselor about the health occupations program in the high school.

A meeting with the guidance counselor provided an opportunity for Carolyn to look over publicity materials about health occupations. She found that her interest in general science and biology would serve her well in subject matter studied during the program. Why not make an appointment with Mrs. Jane Sponder, the health occupations teacher-coordinator, she thought? After getting her parents' approval, she decided to do so.

Mrs. Sponder was pleased to give her aptitude tests and to review her academic background. Her test scores and course grades proved to be adequate. Therefore, Mrs. Sponder, in consultation with Carolyn and the guidance counselor, planned Carolyn's eleventh and twelfth grade schedules of studies. In the planning Mrs. Sponder allowed for the cooperative plan whereby Carolyn would interview at appropriate health organizations in the area to be placed in a training station to gain on-the-job experience toward a health occupations career.

paid employment. A training plan is developed to accompany the training agreement to meet the career objectives of each student. The cooperative plan usually covers the twelfth year as a capstone to a planned sequence of courses, but it may be extended to two years if the training objective warrants it. A certified teacher-coordinator teaches related instruction and coordinates the activities of the training stations and the HOSA student organization.

The organization or pattern of classroom and employment experiences in the cooperative plan should be geared to the needs of the students and the requirements of the occupations being pursued. There are several patterns that may be followed and still guarantee that the student will meet the minimum requirement of an average of 200 minutes of related class instruction each week. The following are examples of scheduling patterns of employment and related class instruction.

1. One 45-minute period a day for job-related class (225 minutes total) plus one-half day of employment.
2. One week of employment, one week of class.
3. One day of employment, one day of class.
4. Four 45-minute periods (180 minutes) of related class on one day plus one period (45 minutes) of related class on another day (225 minutes total). Employment for four days.
5. One day of related class instruction, in addition to daily clinical conferences with the on-the-job supervisor and in-service programs provided by the health-care facility.

RELATED CLASS INSTRUCTION

Related class instruction in health occupations education generally includes ***orientation units***, which are instructional units containing the basic information and technical knowledge needed by student-learners to be vocationally competent in all health occupations, and ***job-related units***, which can be studied on an individual or small-group basis.

Orientation units could include:

1. Applying for a Job
2. Employee Responsibilities
3. Developing Good Work Habits
4. Importance of Proper Grooming
5. Laws and Regulations Affecting Workers
    a. Social Security
    b. Workers' Compensation

   c. Income Tax
   d. Unemployment Insurance
   e. Disability Insurance
6. Elements of Effective Communication
7. Desirable Attitudes and Personal Habits

The content for job-related units is planned by the teacher-coordinator and the supervising employers. The teacher-coordinator and the employer decide which units can best be taught by the instructor in the classroom and which ones can best be taught by the supervisor on the job. Skills and knowledges to be taught will be based on both the job analysis and the level at which the student is expected to perform or is capable of performing.

Teacher-coordinators must develop specific related safety instructional units for each health occupations education program. These units and the student's test scores indicating 100 percent comprehension should be kept on file while the student-learners are in the cooperative plan.

ADEQUATE FACILITIES

The facilities for health occupations education programs will depend upon the occupation(s) being offered. Since cooperative arrangements are made with outside agencies and businesses for on-the-job training, classroom equipment can be kept to a minimum. If necessary, equipment for classroom instruction may sometimes be borrowed from cooperating agencies or other community sources. In addition, some equipment at the training station may be used for further instructional purposes (*e.g.*, suction machine).

The following should be provided in a health occupations laboratory.

1. The instructional area must be adequate to allow for both group and individual instruction. The room should have adequate sink facilities. The instructor should be able to darken the area to show films, filmstrips, and other audio-visual aids.
2. Basic equipment and supplies to demonstrate and practice skills and techniques to meet the requirements of the specific primary program should be available. Adequate storage area for all such equipment and supplies is essential.
3. Audio-visual equipment should be readily accessible.
4. A private conference area adjacent to the classroom, where the coordinator may confer with students, is necessary. It is imperative that this office area contain a typewriter, an unencumbered phone, and filing cabinet(s) with a lock(s) to store records and reports.

5. Clerical assistance, as needed, should be available.
6. Adequate texts and resource materials pertinent to the program should be located within the instructional area.

The equipment needed for any health occupations education program should be determined with the help of the local advisory committee. In most states, suggested equipment lists and other technical assistance are available from the health occupations consultant in the division of vocational education. Figure 19-1 shows a health occupations laboratory.

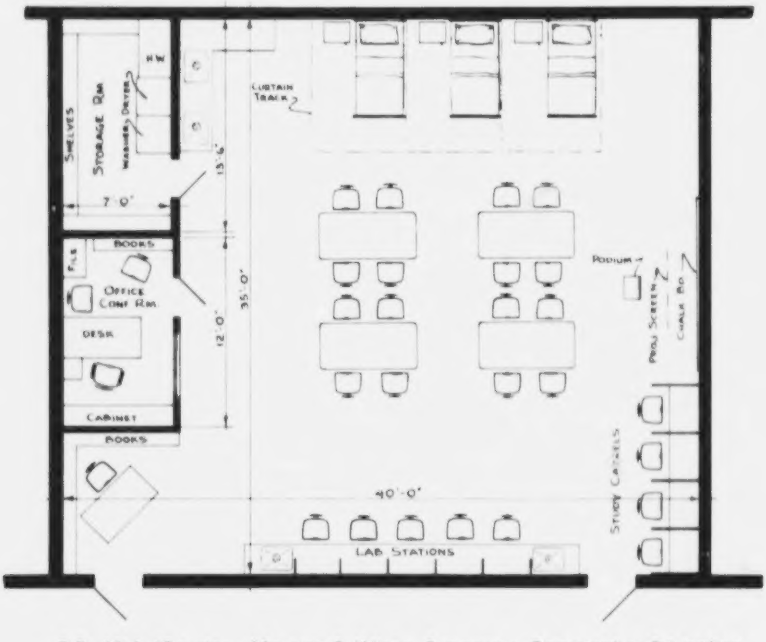

Shelves
Storage Rm
Washer, Dryer
HW
Curtain Track
13'-6"
7'-0"
Books
File
Office Conf Rm
Desk
Cabinet
Books
12'-0"
35'-0"
Podium
Proj Screen
Chalk Bd
Study Carrels
40'-0"
Lab Stations

FIG. 19-1. (Courtesy, Maurice E. Wilson, Supervisor, Cooperative Education, Dade County Public Schools, Miami, Florida)

LICENSURE, REGISTRATION, OR CERTIFICATION

A credentialing system found only in the health field affects certain health occupations education training programs. Whenever a training program leads to licensure, registration, or certification of the graduates, it is necessary for the educational personnel and the specific health occupation regulatory organizations to collaborate in designing and developing the program. For example, to establish an approved practical nursing program, the school administrators, the health occupations education teachers, and the state board of nurses' registration and nursing education work together in its development and continued operation. Students completing the program are required to take the state license examination administered by the state board of nurses. Students should check their own state requirements.

Most entry- or aide-level health occupations are not regulated by licensure, registration, or certification, with the training time being less than one year. Students may enter the job market directly after high school, or they may continue in a more advanced health occupations education training program.

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Suggestions for instructional materials may be obtained from publishers, from state supervisory personnel, from employers, from individuals already employed in occupations for which students are training, and from individuals contacted during field trips.

By writing to the following sources, among others and by identifying their specific needs, teacher-coordinators can obtain titles, descriptions, and price lists of textbooks, manuals, and visual aids.

Delmar Publishers, Inc.
2 Computer Drive, West
Albany, NY 12212

Center for Occupational
Curriculum Development
(CED)
C A 305
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78712

Current Health—The
Beginning Guide to
Health Education
P.O. Box 310
Highwood, IL 60040

Division of Vocational
Education
Curriculum and Instructional
Materials Center
842 West Goodale Avenue
The Ohio State University
Columbus, OH 43212

Health Education Aids
8 South Lakeview Drive
Goddard, KS 67052

Instructional Materials
Laboratory
10 Industrial Education
Building
University of
Missouri–Columbia
Columbia, MO 65211

Vocational Studies
Center
University of
Wisconsin–Madison
1025 West Johnson
Street
(964 Ed. Sci. Building)
Madison, WI 53706

Health Occupations
Consultant
Division of Vocational
Education
(Your state)

Teacher-coordinators should always be looking for materials that they can get free, such as those donated by local employers and associations. If school policy permits, it may be wise to ask student-learners to purchase some manuals of their health specialty, just as they would buy uniforms and white professional shoes. This is a prudent investment of some of the money they earn.

STUDENT ORGANIZATION

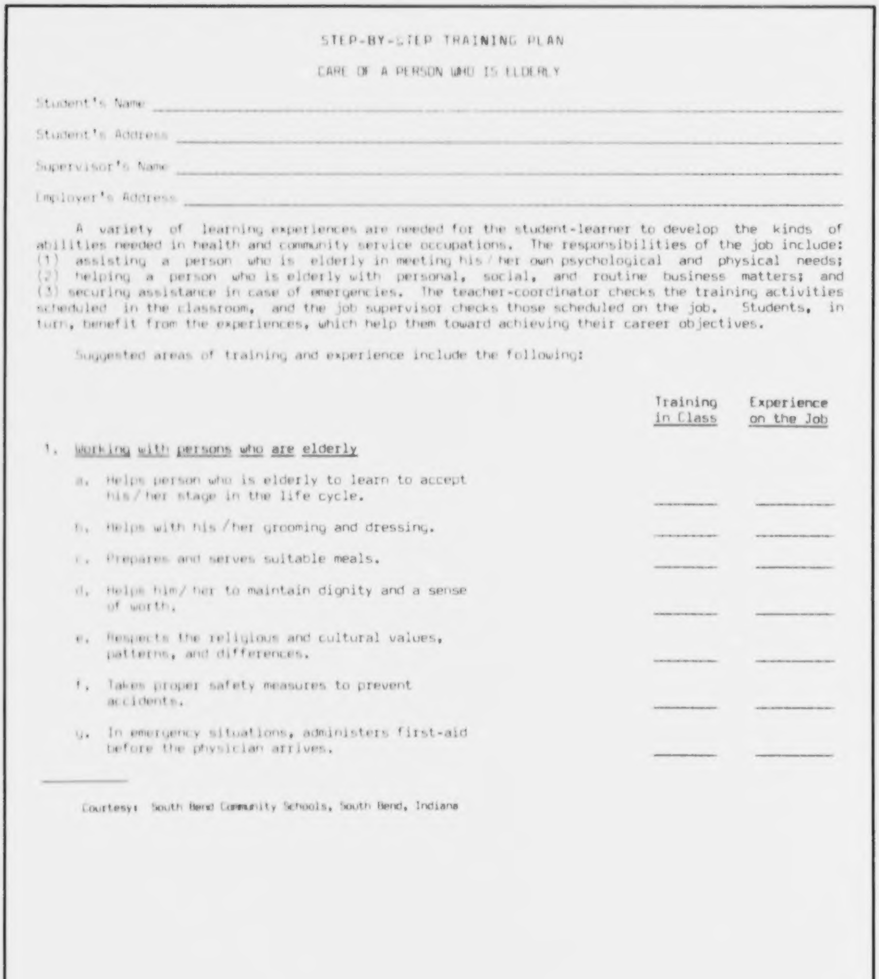
The third dimension of cooperative health occupations education, in addition to related class instruction and the training station, is the health occupations student organization—Health Occupations Students of America (HOSA). As shown in Chapter 14, HOSA includes events in parliamentary procedures, public speaking, interviewing, writing, and medical technology at its annual conventions on the local level if the coordinator plans these events in the student organization programs. (Refer to Chapter 14, which discusses how to organize and operate a student organization.)

SECURING DESIRED LEARNING ON THE JOB

Training agreements are mandatory for those programs funded under vocational legislation. This practice of establishing training agreements is deemed highly desirable for any cooperative plan, regardless of its source of funding.

On-the-job training in a cooperative education plan should contribute directly to the development of the student's occupational competency. The teacher-coordinator and the training station supervisor develop each student's training plan (see Figure 19-2). This plan outlines the kinds of experiences that will be offered during the training period. It is most desirable for the related class instruction to parallel as closely as possible the needs of the student on the job. Both the school and the training station supervisor should understand which areas they are responsible for in the training. Through cooperative planning, the educational plan is developed in a logical sequence.

The employer signs a written agreement with the school indicating the specific nature of the training to be offered and the conditions of the training plan. A sample training agreement form is presented in Chapter 11. Also, Chapter 11 discusses how to develop training stations and training plans for a wide range of student-learners, from slow achievers to fast achievers. A competency-based Statement of Student Learning Objectives (SSLO) (see Chapter 11), suitable to the learning abilities of the individual student-learners, can be selected each evaluation period.



STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN

CARE OF A PERSON WHO IS ELDERLY

Student's Name ______________________________

Student's Address ______________________________

Supervisor's Name ______________________________

Employer's Address ______________________________

A variety of learning experiences are needed for the student-learner to develop the kinds of abilities needed in health and community service occupations. The responsibilities of the job include: (1) assisting a person who is elderly in meeting his/her own psychological and physical needs; (2) helping a person who is elderly with personal, social, and routine business matters; and (3) securing assistance in case of emergencies. The teacher-coordinator checks the training activities scheduled in the classroom, and the job supervisor checks those scheduled on the job. Students, in turn, benefit from the experiences, which help them toward achieving their career objectives.

Suggested areas of training and experience include the following:

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
1. Working with persons who are elderly		
a. Helps person who is elderly to learn to accept his/her stage in the life cycle.	______	______
b. Helps with his/her grooming and dressing.	______	______
c. Prepares and serves suitable meals.	______	______
d. Helps him/her to maintain dignity and a sense of worth.	______	______
e. Respects the religious and cultural values, patterns, and differences.	______	______
f. Takes proper safety measures to prevent accidents.	______	______
g. In emergency situations, administers first-aid before the physician arrives.	______	______

Courtesy: South Bend Community Schools, South Bend, Indiana

FIG. 19-2

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
2. Attaining desirable personal physical appearance		
a. Dresses appropriately.	______	______
b. Maintains good posture.	______	______
c. Improves personal appearance through proper hair care and style changes.	______	______
d. Cares for nails, face, and teeth.	______	______
e. Learns the importance of personal hygiene.	______	______
f. Learns proper way to care for shoes, clothing, and accessories.	______	______
g. Wears shoes that are comfortable and that cover the feet.	______	______
h. Applies make-up tastefully.	______	______
3. Cultivating desirable personal qualities		
a. Is interested in people, especially those who are elderly.	______	______
b. Is able to express feelings of tenderness, warmth, and affection.	______	______
c. Accepts responsibility.	______	______
d. Is responsive to the needs of those who are elderly.	______	______
e. Is willing to accept constructive criticism.	______	______
f. Controls negative emotions at all times.	______	______
g. Is able to make independent decisions when necessary.	______	______
h. Adjusts to difficult situations.	______	______
i. Is honest.	______	______
j. Is patient; understands that persons who are elderly usually have slow movements.	______	______

FIG. 19-2 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
3. Cultivating desirable personal qualities (cont.)		
k. Is discreet.	________	________
l. Respects other people's beliefs and values.	________	________
m. Is able to maintain harmonious personal relationships.	________	________
n. Is able to speak clearly, write legibly, and read aloud effectively.	________	________
o. Communicates easily with others.	________	________
4. Understanding employment policies		
a. Knows proper ways to apply for work.	________	________
b. Understands policies regarding wages, pay periods, transportation, health examinations.	________	________
c. Understands the special concerns if an individual family or person is employer.	________	________
d. Understands Social Security and other laws affecting employment.	________	________
e. Understands training agreement concerning hours, wages, job to be done.	________	________
f. Understands the mutual responsibilities of both employer and employee.	________	________
5. Understanding physical and mental health needs of persons who are elderly		
a. Understands the disabilities common in persons who are elderly: frailty, loss of hearing, sight, memory.	________	________
b. Understands the needs of persons who are elderly who have any of these disabilities.	________	________
c. Understands how to help those with disabilities.	________	________
d. Knows how to use available health services.	________	________
e. Understands the reasons for inadequate nutrition -- economics, food habits, food fads, frailty, lack of interest, aversion to eating alone.	________	________

FIG. 19-2 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
5. Understanding physical and mental health needs of persons who are elderly (cont.)		
f. Encourages person to help himself / herself as much as possible in daily activities.	____	____
6. Assisting with personal, social, and business matters; acquiring social amenities		
a. Accompanies person to hair styling salon, to doctor's office, to a movie, shopping, on an extended tour.	____	____
b. Addresses Christmas cards and writes letters.	____	____
c. Attends to business transactions -- going to bank, paying bills, writing checks, making telephone calls.	____	____
d. Accompanies person to church, to social gatherings, to call on friends.	____	____
e. Arranges to entertain person's friends and relatives.	____	____
f. Reads aloud, plays games, is an interested listener.	____	____
g. Can be entrusted with private or secret matters.	____	____
7. Doing simple household tasks		
a. Keeps the living area clean, orderly, and attractive.	____	____
b. Plans sequence of cleaning jobs to avoid upsetting daily routine.	____	____
c. Uses equipment and methods for each job that cause least amount of confusion and noise.	____	____
8. Helping with personal tasks		
a. Helps the person take a bath.	____	____
b. Helps the person change clothes.	____	____
c. Respects the person's wish for privacy.	____	____

FIG. 19-2 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
9. Caring for clothing and shoes		
a. Hand washes drip-dry fabrics, hose, fine lingerie, gloves.	________	________
b. Presses and repairs articles of clothing.	________	________
c. Stores items used often in accustomed places.	________	________
d. Takes or sends clothes to commercial cleaners.	________	________
e. Polishes shoes; takes them to be repaired.	________	________
10. Understanding principles of nutrition and meal planning		
a. Understands the principles of food preparation.	________	________
b. Knows what the basic food groups are and the functions of each.	________	________
c. Knows how to plan and prepare special meals that are nutritionally sound.	________	________
d. Understands special nutritional needs and food problems.	________	________
e. Considers coat, flavor, texture, and color in planning attractive, appetizing meals.	________	________
f. Knows how to prevent spoilage and contamination of food.	________	________
g. Knows how to arrange table attractively.	________	________
h. Serves food in appetizing manner and in appropriate quantities.	________	________
i. Understands the importance of using sanitary methods of dishwashing and cleaning up the kitchen.	________	________

FIG. 19-2 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
11. Understanding how to prevent accidents in the home		
a. Understands causes of home accidents.	____	____
b. Encourages elimination of common household hazards, such as small rugs and waxed floors.	____	____
c. Encourages installation of safety devices, such as stair railings, wall handles at tub and toilet, carpeting floors.	____	____
d. Anticipates danger zones and gives extra precautionary help.	____	____
12. Knowing what actions to take in an emergency		
a. Keeps telephone numbers to use in emergencies -- numbers of person legally responsible for the injured person, neighbors or friends, doctor, hospital, ambulance, police, fire department, plumber, electrician.	____	____
b. Notifies doctor and/or family.	____	____
c. Applies appropriate first-aid measures for cuts, burns, or fainting.	____	____
13. Completing individual projects		
a. Preparing a job manual based on activities at the training station.	____	____
b. Develops career manuals.	____	____

Employer ______________________

Parent ______________________

Teacher Coordinator ______________________

School ______________________

(Copies to employer, teacher-coordinator, student)

FIG. 19-2 (Continued)

The teacher-coordinator must be free to supervise students adequately when they are employed at the training stations. Time devoted to each student for on-the-job visitation and supervision should equal an average of at least one-half hour per week.

Illustrative of appropriate community health-care facilities is the following list. When searching for training stations in a local community, the teacher-coordinator will find this checklist useful.

Appropriate Community Health-Care Facilities

Hospitals

Admissions Office
Business Office
Central Supply
Clinics
Dietary Department
Electrocardiogram Unit
Electroencephalogram Unit
Emergency Room
Escort Service
Housekeeping Department
Inhalation Therapy Unit
Laboratory
Maternity Unit
Medical Records Department
Medical–Surgical Units
Occupational Therapy Department
Operating Room
Pediatric Unit
Physical Therapy Unit
Recreational Therapy Unit
Speech Therapy Unit
Social Service Office
Ward Clerk Units

Community Health-Care and Service Facilities

Baby-keep-well stations
Blood banks
Child day-care centers
Community health centers
Dental laboratories
Dentists' offices
Doctors' offices
Drug addiction centers
Drugstores
Extended-care centers
Health department
Homes for individuals who are mentally retarded
Industrial health offices
Intermediate-care centers
Medical–surgical supply stations
Mortuaries
Neighborhood health centers
Nursing homes
Orphanages
Pharmaceutical companies
Podiatrists' offices
Private medical laboratories
Rehabilitation centers
School nurses' offices
Veterinarian offices
Visiting homemaker services
Voluntary health agencies (heart, cancer, etc.)

STUDENT EVALUATION

Evaluating student progress is a joint responsibility of the teacher-coordinator and the employer. Although some school districts require a separate grade for the related class instruction and the student's on-the-job performance, the authors believe the grade given for the course should include both related class instruction and on-the-job performance. Furthermore, it is strongly recommended that the teacher-coordinator and the employer evaluate the student's performance at least once during the grading period.

The teacher-coordinator should develop an evaluation form to meet local needs. Figure 19-3 illustrates a general purpose form with a graduated scale for each element of evaluation.

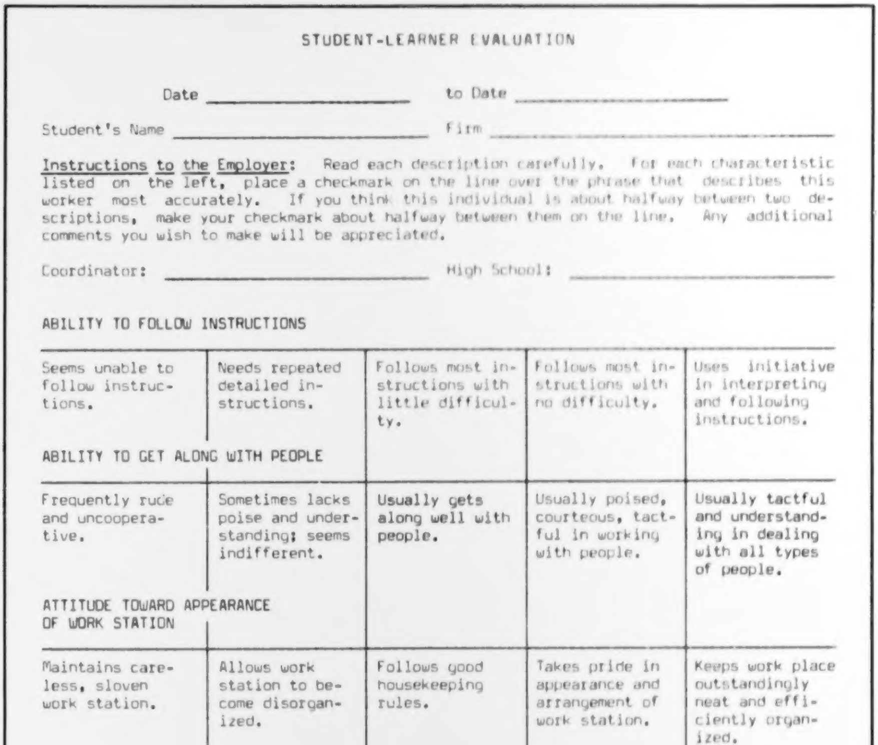
A more specific evaluation form is illustrated in Figure 19-4, which is a performance checklist for learning activities in the classroom and/or on the job.

POST-SECONDARY PROGRAMS

Post-secondary health occupations education programs provide training for those individuals seeking occupational preparation in the health field. Students may be graduates of secondary health occupations education programs who desire to continue their occupational training, or they may be individuals just beginning their training in the health occupations field. Students in some post-secondary health occupations education programs may work toward licensure, registration, or certification.

ADULT PROGRAMS

In order to meet the changing needs of adults in health occupations, non-credit health occupations education programs are conducted in comprehensive high schools and area vocational schools. Individuals may be preparing for entry into gainful employment or upgrading skills in their current positions. Students in some adult programs may work toward licensure, registration, or certification.



STUDENT-LEARNER EVALUATION

Date ____________ to Date ____________

Student's Name ____________ Firm ____________

Instructions to the Employer: Read each description carefully. For each characteristic listed on the left, place a checkmark on the line over the phrase that describes this worker most accurately. If you think this individual is about halfway between two descriptions, make your checkmark about halfway between them on the line. Any additional comments you wish to make will be appreciated.

Coordinator: ____________ High School: ____________

ABILITY TO FOLLOW INSTRUCTIONS

Seems unable to follow instructions.	Needs repeated detailed instructions.	Follows most instructions with little difficulty.	Follows most instructions with no difficulty.	Uses initiative in interpreting and following instructions.

ABILITY TO GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE

Frequently rude and uncooperative.	Sometimes lacks poise and understanding; seems indifferent.	Usually gets along well with people.	Usually poised, courteous, tactful in working with people.	Usually tactful and understanding in dealing with all types of people.

ATTITUDE TOWARD APPEARANCE OF WORK STATION

Maintains careless, sloven work station.	Allows work station to become disorganized.	Follows good housekeeping rules.	Takes pride in appearance and arrangement of work station.	Keeps work place outstandingly neat and efficiently organized.

COOPERATION

Uncooperative, antagonistic -- hard to get along with.	Cooperates reluctantly.	Cooperates willingly when asked.	Usually cooperates eagerly and cheerfully.	Always cooperates eagerly and cheerfully without being asked.

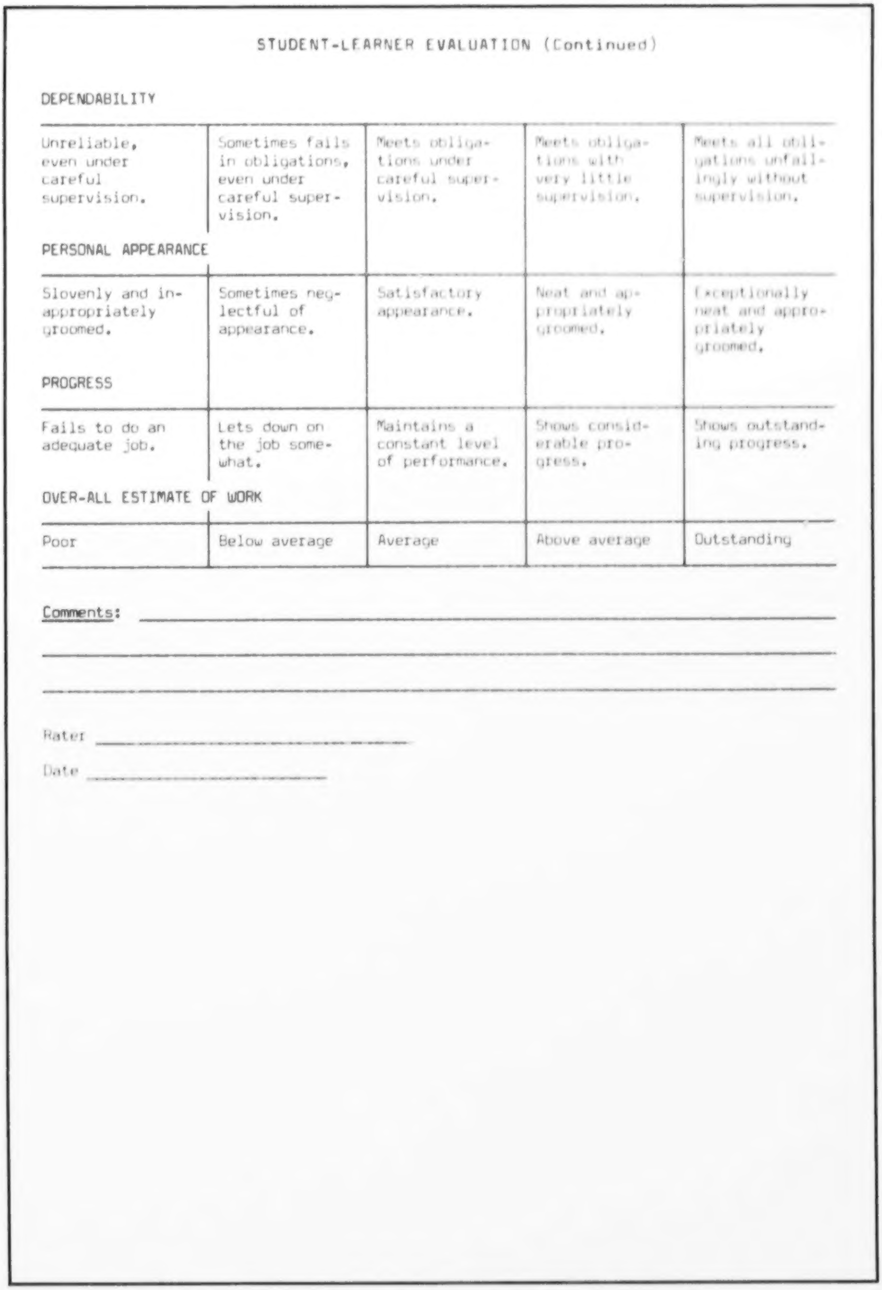
INDUSTRY

Always attempts to avoid work.	Sometimes attempts to avoid work.	Does assigned work willingly.	Does more than assigned work willingly if given directions.	Shows originality and resourcefulness in going beyond assigned job without continual direction.

QUALITY OF WORK

Does almost no acceptable work.	Does less than required amount of satisfactory work.	Does normal amount of acceptable work.	Does more than required amount of neat, accurate work.	Shows special aptitude for doing neat, accurate work beyond the required amount.

FIG. 19-3. (Courtesy, South Bend Community School Corporation, South Bend, Indiana)



STUDENT-LEARNER EVALUATION (Continued)

DEPENDABILITY

Unreliable, even under careful supervision.	Sometimes fails in obligations, even under careful supervision.	Meets obligations under careful supervision.	Meets obligations with very little supervision.	Meets all obligations unfailingly without supervision.

PERSONAL APPEARANCE

Slovenly and inappropriately groomed.	Sometimes neglectful of appearance.	Satisfactory appearance.	Neat and appropriately groomed.	Exceptionally neat and appropriately groomed.

PROGRESS

Fails to do an adequate job.	Lets down on the job somewhat.	Maintains a constant level of performance.	Shows considerable progress.	Shows outstanding progress.

OVER-ALL ESTIMATE OF WORK

Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Outstanding

Comments: ______________________________

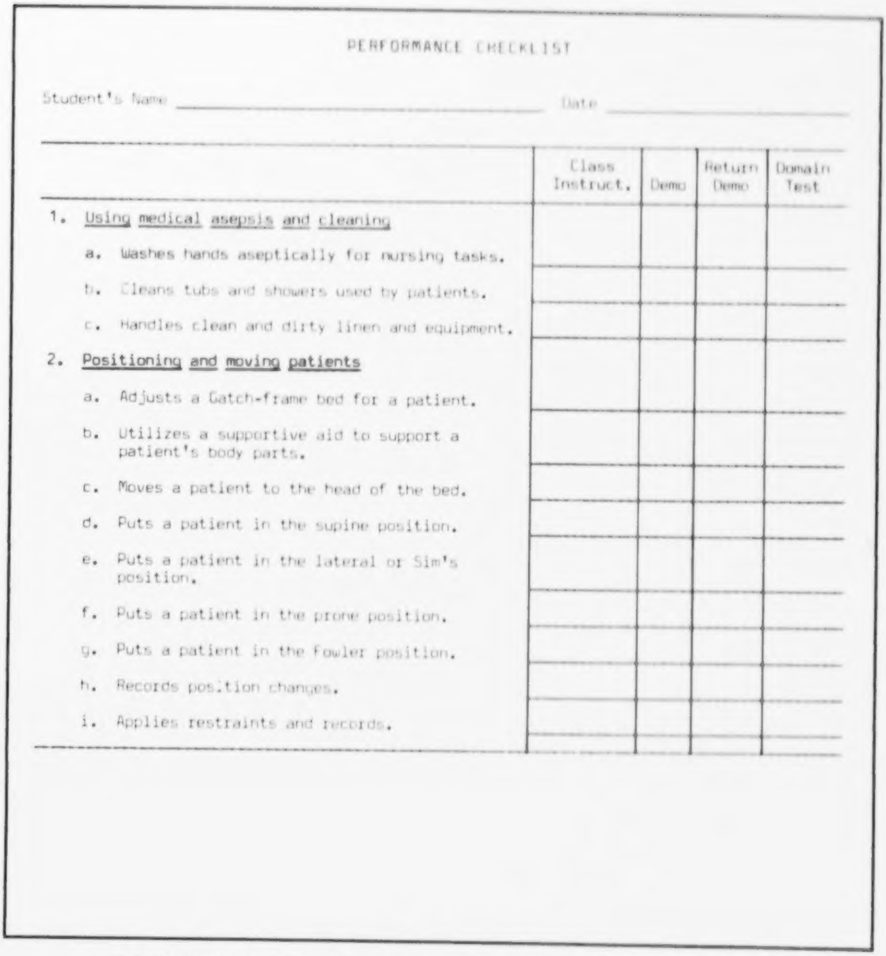
____

____

Rater ______________________

Date ______________________

FIG. 19-3 (Continued)



PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST

Student's Name ______________________ Date ______________

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
1. Using medical asepsis and cleaning				
a. Washes hands aseptically for nursing tasks.				
b. Cleans tubs and showers used by patients.				
c. Handles clean and dirty linen and equipment.				
2. Positioning and moving patients				
a. Adjusts a Gatch-frame bed for a patient.				
b. Utilizes a supportive aid to support a patient's body parts.				
c. Moves a patient to the head of the bed.				
d. Puts a patient in the supine position.				
e. Puts a patient in the lateral or Sim's position.				
f. Puts a patient in the prone position.				
g. Puts a patient in the Fowler position.				
h. Records position changes.				
i. Applies restraints and records.				

FIG. 19-4. (Courtesy, South Bend Community School Corporation, South Bend, Indiana)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
3. Making beds for patients				
a. Makes an unoccupied closed bed for a patient.				
b. Makes an unoccupied open bed for a patient.				
c. Makes an occupied bed for a patient.				
d. Makes a bed with supportive devices (heat cradle, footboard, etc.) for a patient.				
4. Dressing and undressing patients				
a. Changes a patient's gown.				
b. Assists a patient with slippers and robe.				
c. Assists a patient with pant-type garments.				
d. Assists a patient who is partially paralyzed.				
e. Puts incontinent briefs on a patient.				
f. Drapes a cotton blanket or a sheet on a patient.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
5. Ambulating and transferring patients				
a. Helps a patient to dangle legs.				
b. Helps a patient from bed to chair and back.				
c. Helps a patient to walk (with a person).				
d. Helps a patient to walk with a walker.				
e. Helps a patient to a wheelchair.				
f. With the help of two other persons, transfers a patient to a chair.				
g. With the help of three other persons, transfers a patient to a chair.				
h. Transports a patient in a wheelchair.				
i. Records assistance given.				
6. Assisting patients with oral hygiene				
a. Helps a patient to brush teeth.				
b. Brushes a patient's teeth.				
c. Cleans a patient's dentures.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
6. Assisting patients with oral hygiene (cont.) a. Administers a mouthwash.				
b. Records care given.				
7. Assisting patients with hair and nail care a. Combs a patient's hair.				
b. Shampoos and drys a patient's hair.				
c. Shaves a male patient's face with an electric razor.				
d. Shaves a male patient's face with a safety razor.				
e. Cleans a patient's fingernails and toenails.				
f. Trims a patient's fingernails and toenails.				
g. Records care given.				
8. Assisting patients with elimination a. Helps a patient to use the bedpan.				
b. Helps a patient to use the fracture pan.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
8. Assisting patients with elimination (cont.)				
c. Helps a male patient to use the urinal.				
d. Helps a patient to use the commode.				
e. Helps a patient to get to the bathroom.				
f. Gives a patient perineal care.				
g. Cleans an incontinent patient.				
h. Empties a patient's urinary drainage bag.				
i. Measures a patient's urinary output.				
j. Records care given.				
9. Bathing patients				
a. Washes a patient's face and hands.				
b. Washes a patient's back.				
c. Assists a patient with A.M. care.				
d. Assists a patient with P.M. care.				
e. Assists a patient with a partial bath.				
f. Assists a patient with a tub bath.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
9. Bathing patients (cont.)				
g. Assists a patient with a shower.				
h. Encourages or assists a patient with range of motion.				
i. Gives a patient a complete bed bath.				
j. Records care given.				
10. Determining patients' vital signs				
a. Using a glass or an electronic thermometer, determines a patient's oral temperature.				
b. Determines a patient's axillary temperature.				
c. Determines a patient's rectal temperature.				
d. Records results.				
11. Assisting patients with nutrition and hydration				
a. Checks the food on a food tray to be served to a patient.				
b. Serves food on a food tray to a patient.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
11. Assisting patients with nutrition and hydration (cont.)				
c. Secures a geriatric feeding chair or a high chair to feed a patient.				
d. Helps a patient to eat.				
e. Feeds a helpless patient.				
f. Measures and / or computes a patient's oral intake.				
g. Records food / fluids taken by a patient				
h. Brings a patient drinking water.				
12. Weighing and measuring patients				
a. Determines a patient's weight when patient is standing on scales.				
b. Determines a patient's weight when patient is sitting in a chair.				
c. Records patient's weight / measurement.				
13. Admitting, transferring, and discharging patients				
a. Prepares a unit for a new patient.				
b. Inventories a patient's personal belongings.				
c. Marks and / or stores a patient's personal belongings.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
14. Applying protective devices and administering special skin care to patients				
a. Puts heel and elbow protectors on a patient.				
b. Puts anti-decubitus pads under a patient.				
c. Checks a patient's skin for pressure areas.				
d. Supports a patient's body parts to prevent pressure areas.				
15. Understanding and using first-aid practices				
a. Observes and reports a patient who has fallen.				
b. Observes and reports a patient who has fainted.				
c. Assists nurse with appropriate first-aid measures.				
d. Recognizes and reports potential sites for accidents.				
e. Recognizes and reports impending signs of a patient in distress.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
16. Understanding the aging process				
a. Begins to understand the developmental stages of aging (children included).				
b. Recognizes normal structure of body systems.				
c. Recognizes changing functions of body system.				
d. Understands psychosocial aspects of institutionalization.				
e. Understands dependency and independency.				
f. Understands the losses encountered in old age, including the process of grieving.				
17. Accountability				
a. Recognizes invasion of privacy, privileged communications and consent, and resident's safety and rights.				
b. Identifies and traces lines of authority in the facility.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

PERFORMANCE CHECKLIST (Continued)

	Class Instruct.	Demo	Return Demo	Domain Test
18. Using interpersonal skills / communication skills a. Identifies factors that promote effective communication.				
b. Defines verbal and nonverbal communication / active listening.				
c. Identifies essential attitudes for establishing working relationships with residents, families, and staff.				
d. Responds to a call light or a resident's request.				
e. Communicates and interacts with those who have impaired mental and psychosocial abilities.				

FIG. 19-4 (Continued)

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a 20-minute talk that you could give before a civic club or professional group explaining the cooperative health occupations plan. Prepare charts or other visual aids to supplement your talk. (Add the notes of this talk to your files.)
2. What are the minimum qualifications for becoming certified as a coordinator of the cooperative plan for health occupations? (Refer to your state's certification plan.)
3. How adequate is the list of topics for related instruction suggested in this chapter? If you were the teacher-coordinator, which areas would you emphasize the most?
4. If you were preparing a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing equipment and supplies for a cooperative health occupations classroom, what essentials would you request the first year? What would be some desirable items you would put in your plan for purchase later on? Referring to current periodicals and state department handbooks should give you some ideas. (Add the notes of these ideas to your files.)
5. Analyze the learning outcomes that could be expected in a specific prospective training station in your local community. Determine the possibility of a student-learner's progress toward his/her career objective in this training station by the end of the school year. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to proceed.)
6. How do the activities provided by a health occupations education student organization provide educational experiences for student-learners?
7. Study current references on classroom equipment and floor plans. Draw a room layout to scale (¼ inch equals 1 foot) and prepare an equipment list.
8. State the learning outcomes of a training plan in behavioral terms. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions.)

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

20

The Plan in Home Economics Occupations

Food preparation is an important training station activity for student-learners in home economics occupations.

KEY CONCEPT: *The broad scope of wage-earning occupations outside the home, which use concepts and principles learned in home economics, has made clear that the cooperative plan of instruction is a valuable curriculum structure in this area.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify and list appropriate training station and career objectives in home economics occupations.
- Understand how to develop an appropriate curriculum for a local plan in cooperative occupational education for home economics occupations.
- List the major sources of instructional materials for home economics occupations education.
- Understand how to devise appropriate training plans for students at various training stations.
- Evaluate other student-learners in the classroom and on the job.
- Describe student-learner benefits gained from membership in HERO.

Home Economics Wage-earning Occupations

Home economics education provides vocational preparation for occupations outside the home. By and large, this is a relatively new role for some home economics educators who have adopted the cooperative plan of instruction in their curricula in preparing students for such jobs.[1]

The broad scope of wage-earning occupations outside the home has made clear that the cooperative plan of instruction is a valuable curriculum structure in home economics education. Vocational educators should refrain from what might be a normal temptation to classify as home economics those occupations in which women are primarily engaged. The criterion for curriculum development is the learning source of the competencies needed by a worker. That is, those competencies best learned on the job might be covered in training stations through a cooperative education plan. Those competencies best learned in the classroom should be built into the curriculum to be taught in school classrooms and laboratories.

Home Economics Occupations

Home economics occupations plans are composed of groups of related courses or units of instruction organized for the purpose of enabling students to acquire knowledge and to develop understandings, attitudes, and skills relevant to occupational preparation by using the knowledges and skills of home economics. The subject matter of home economics applies concepts drawn from the natural and social sciences and the humanities in unique ways.

Occupational preparation in home economics areas consists of courses or units of instruction emphasizing the acquisition of competencies needed for getting and holding a job and/or preparing for advancement in an occupational area by using home economics knowledges and skills. Instructional content is selected from the unique requirements in a specific occupation related to home economics and is coordinated with appropriate field, laboratory, and work experiences. Occupations include those that provide (1) services to families in the home and similar services to others in group situations; (2) assistance to professional home economists and professionals in fields related to home economics in industries, agencies, and organizations; and (3) other services and/or assistance directly related to one or more home economics subject matter areas, such as service occupations in food service and child care.

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[1] The authors choose to use the term cooperative *plan* rather than cooperative *method*. The rationale for this practice is explained in Chapters 1 and 4.

The vocational home economics CIP Code 20.00 includes the following occupational clusters.[2]

20.01	Consumer and Homemaking Education (non – wage-earning)
20.02	Child Care and Guidance Management and Services
20.03	Clothing, Apparel, and Textiles Management, Production, and Services
20.04	Food Production, Management, and Services
20.05	Home Furnishing and Equipment Management, Production, and Service
20.06	Institutional, Home Management, and Supporting Services
20.99	Vocational Home Economics, Other

The cooperative plan in home economics is used in both one- and two-year programs. Basic instruction is combined with supervised on-the-job experiences in caring for children in nursery schools, day-care centers, and kindergarten programs; in clothing management, alterations, industrial sewing, clothing maintenance; and in health centers, restaurants, institutional kitchens, and cafeterias. Some of the many occupations include bridal consultant, fabric coordinator, child-care aide, household employee, home furnishings aide, hotel/motel aide, alterations worker, dietary aide, tailor, millinery aide, food service worker, and foods, equipment, or textiles tester.

Students who graduate from a home economics occupations plan are prepared to assume positions in the occupations for which they have been trained. These entry-level through mid-management positions may lead to job advancement requiring additional education and work experience. This is known as the vertical ladder concept. Utilizing the lattice concept, the students might also move horizontally to other jobs requiring comparable skills. A listing of job opportunities in home economics occupations follows. A variety of jobs that utilize students with vocational training or advanced college and university preparation are available in home economics.

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[2] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*, Vocational – Technical Education Programs, National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, pp. 26 and 96.

Types of Home Economics Occupations Training Stations

Restaurants
Day-care centers
Nursing homes
Hospitals
Cafeterias
Bakeries
Dining halls
Convalescent centers
Baking laboratories
Clothing departments
Specialty shops
Alterations' departments

THE COOPERATIVE PLAN

When organized as a cooperative plan, home economics occupations operate partly in the schools and partly in businesses and industries in the community. Cooperative students attend a one-hour related class per day at school and then work approximately 15 hours per week in businesses or industries, being paid the minimum wage at the start of the training. The selection of training stations is based upon the student's career goals in their chosen occupations. The cooperative education teacher-coordinators are responsible for teaching basic skills and world-of-work information in the related classroom, placing the students in appropriate training stations, and supervising students on the job. The employers provide the technical skills training and practice. Cooperatively, the teachers, students, and employers develop individual training agreements and training plans. These specify the competencies each student should learn in school and on the job.

In some instances, home economics programs are a combination of both in-school laboratory and cooperative experiences. The junior year may be structured as an in-school laboratory program, with the senior year used as a cooperative plan. This dual combination provides the structure of laboratory training in the first year with actual work experience the following year. Also, the combination program has advantages when the in-school facilities are only large enough to handle one beginning class, or if the number of community training stations is limited.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

In-school laboratory students receive all their training within the school before they apply for a job. Because of this, the most realistic and up-to-date facilities and equipment are necessary to aid the students in making an easy transition from school to work. In addition to the laboratory facility, a fully equipped classroom is a vital component for each program. The classroom needs to be conveniently located near the laboratory, with facilities to accommodate large-group, small-group, and individualized instruction.

Movable tables and chairs might well be arranged in a "U" shape, with the chairs outside the "U." Chalkboard space, bulletin board space, reference book shelves, magazine racks, and filing cabinets are important, as are an audiotape or cassette recorder, a tape-slide projector, a video cassette, and a computer terminal (see Figure 20-1). A room available for individual student-coordinator conferences is an important feature of the cooperative home economics occupations education classroom. Here there is privacy for discussing personal problems or problems encountered at the training station. Glass partitions or large glass windows in the conference room allow the activities going on in the classroom to be in full view of the teacher-coordinator who is participating in an individual conference.

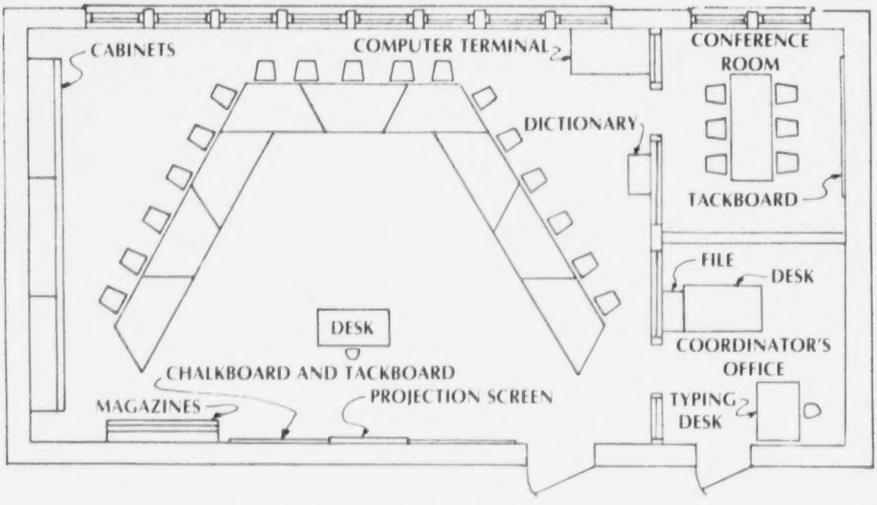
CABINETS
COMPUTER TERMINAL
CONFERENCE ROOM
DICTIONARY
TACKBOARD
FILE
DESK
COORDINATOR'S OFFICE
DESK
CHALKBOARD AND TACKBOARD
MAGAZINES
PROJECTION SCREEN
TYPING DESK

FIG. 20-1. Floor plan for a cooperative home economics education related instruction room with conference area and coordinator's office.

If there are other cooperative education plans, such as health occupations and industrial education in the school, conceivably this specially designed classroom could be shared with these teacher-coordinators. Also, this type of classroom is ideal for adult instruction. Additional chairs could be added if a different configuration of the tables were arranged.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum for cooperative home economics occupations plans consists of world-of-work information and technical skills information. World-of-work information that is taught in the related classroom includes (1) determining the availability of jobs, (2) understanding how to apply for a job, (3) interviewing, and (4) understanding work responsibilities, work standards, ethics, policies and regulations on the job, and interpersonal relations. The technical skills information that is taught includes that which is needed by student-learners to obtain initial entry-level and advanced-level employment in the home economics occupations.

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Contacting the consultant or the supervisor for home economics education in the state will provide some ideas for sources of instructional materials. By writing to the following sources, among others, identifying their specific needs for instructional materials for related classroom instruction in home economics occupations, teacher-coordinators can obtain titles, descriptions, and price lists of textbooks, manuals, and audio-visual aids. The January–February issue of the journal of the American Vocational Association, *VocEd*, provides a directory of suppliers.

Division of
Home Economics
Curriculum and Instructional
Materials Center
The Ohio State University
842 West Goodale Avenue
Columbus, OH 43212

Curriculum and Instructional
Materials Center
Oklahoma State Department of
Vocational and Technical
Education
1500 West Seventh Street
Stillwater, OK 74074

South-Western Publishing Co.
5101 Madison Road
Cincinnati, OH 45227

National Home Fashions League
107 World Trade Center
P.O. Box 58045
Dallas, TX 75258

Center for Occupational
Curriculum Development
(CED)
C A 305
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78712

Ginn and Company
191 Spring Street
Lexington, MA 02173

Delmar Publishers, Inc.
2 Computer Drive, West
Albany, NY 12212

Goodheart-Wilcox Co.,
Inc.
123 West Taft Drive
South Holland, IL 60473

Charles A. Bennett Co.
Retail Bakers of America
Suite 250
6525 Belcrest Road
Hyattsville, MD 20782

Division of Home
Economics Education
College of Education
University of Illinois
Urbana, IL 61801

Bennett & McKnight
809 West Detweiller
Drive
Peoria, IL 61615

Changing Times
Educational Service
Division of EMC
Publishing
300 York Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55101

The alert teacher-coordinator also should be able to obtain some materials free, such as those donated by local employers and associations. If school policy permits, the teacher-coordinator could ask student-learners to purchase some manuals of their trade, just as they would buy uniforms and shoes. This is a wise investment of some of the money they earn.

STUDENT ORGANIZATION

The HERO student organization is the third dimension of the cooperative occupational education plan. It is an integral part of the total instructional program, including the related classroom and the training station. Chapter 14 lists suggestions on how students may benefit from participation in a HERO student chapter.

The student organization is a good place to stress parliamentary procedures, neat appearance and appropriate dress, social etiquette, and successful completion of individual and group projects.

SECURING DESIRED LEARNING ON THE JOB

Because the needs of each student-learner for instruction in his/her chosen occupation vary, the teacher-coordinator must determine the specific experiences needed. The technique that accomplishes this is the training plan that is developed for each student-learner, showing what is to be learned on the job. This plan has to be worked out by the teacher-coordinator in cooperation with the on-the-job supervisor or employer. This plan will be in the form of a task breakdown of the phases of the occupation that the student-learner is expected to learn.

Training may be given in occupations with which the coordinator may not be familiar and about which assistance will have to be sought. In all instances, the advisory committee can help. This committee should include employers, supervisors, and employees in home economics wage-earning occupations. The employer should be encouraged to have a hand in developing the training plan. A detailed discussion of advisory committees is presented in Chapter 6.

The training plan may be worked out in any one of a number of forms, the most effective being those designed for particular student-learners in their individual training stations. An example is shown in Figure 20-2.

As in other cooperative education plans, the step-by-step training plan (schedule of processes) should make the home economics wage-earning occupations training plan sharply distinctive from general work experience plans.

The plan indicates the specific vocational objectives to be emphasized as well as the place where they are to be learned—school or job—and from whom they are to be learned—related instruction teacher or on-the-job supervisor. Frequently, the plan is attached to the training agreement (see Chapter 11) to make up a complete training plan. The details of the breakdown and the comprehensiveness or completeness of the training plan will depend upon the opportunities offered at the training station and the ability of the student-learner to benefit from the training.

Training stations and training plans can be developed for a wide range of student-learners, from slow achievers to fast ones. A competency-based SSLO (see Chapter 11) that is suitable to the learning abilities of the individual student-learner should be selected each evaluation period.

MEASURING STUDENT-LEARNERS' GROWTH

In the final analysis, measurement of the student-learners' growth and development at the end of the school year will be determined by the extent to which the objectives have been reached. The objectives of an effectively developed training plan will include:

1. Increasing the skills of the individual student-learners to perform successfully at the entry-level position.
2. Helping student-learners to develop an understanding of and an appreciation for the fundamentals of the information and knowledge related to the occupation.

CASE-IN-POINT

Recognize the Social Type with Whom You Work

Jane Thompson, a student-learner at the food facility in the veteran's hospital, came to her teacher-coordinator with a problem. Jane said that she was having difficulty working under her supervisor, Mr. Wright. She felt that Mr. Wright expected too much from her. She didn't mind working hard, but there seemed to be no way to keep up. Jane's teacher-coordinator promised to make a visit to the training station to size up the situation. In the meantime, he reviewed four social types with Jane to help her in adjusting to Mr. Wright's method of operation.

The coordinator reminded Jane that supervisors and managers tend to be one of four basic social types—amiable, analytical, aggressive, or expressive.* Of course, any individual might be a combination of one or more of these types. From visitations to the training station and a discussion with Jane the teacher-coordinator determined that Mr. Wright was definitely an aggressive type. The two discussed the characteristics of the aggressive type, who tended to be independent, candid, decisive, pragmatic, determined, efficient, and objective. The aggressive types normally like employees who are available and who exhibit cooperativeness, loyalty, supportiveness, patience, and respect. Both Jane and her coordinator decided that when Mr. Wright realized she was productive and doing her best to be cooperative, he would be more understanding. So both laid out a plan to tackle the situation over time.

Knowing that other trainees might be having similar problems, they decided to study and discuss the various social types in class for the benefit of all the students.

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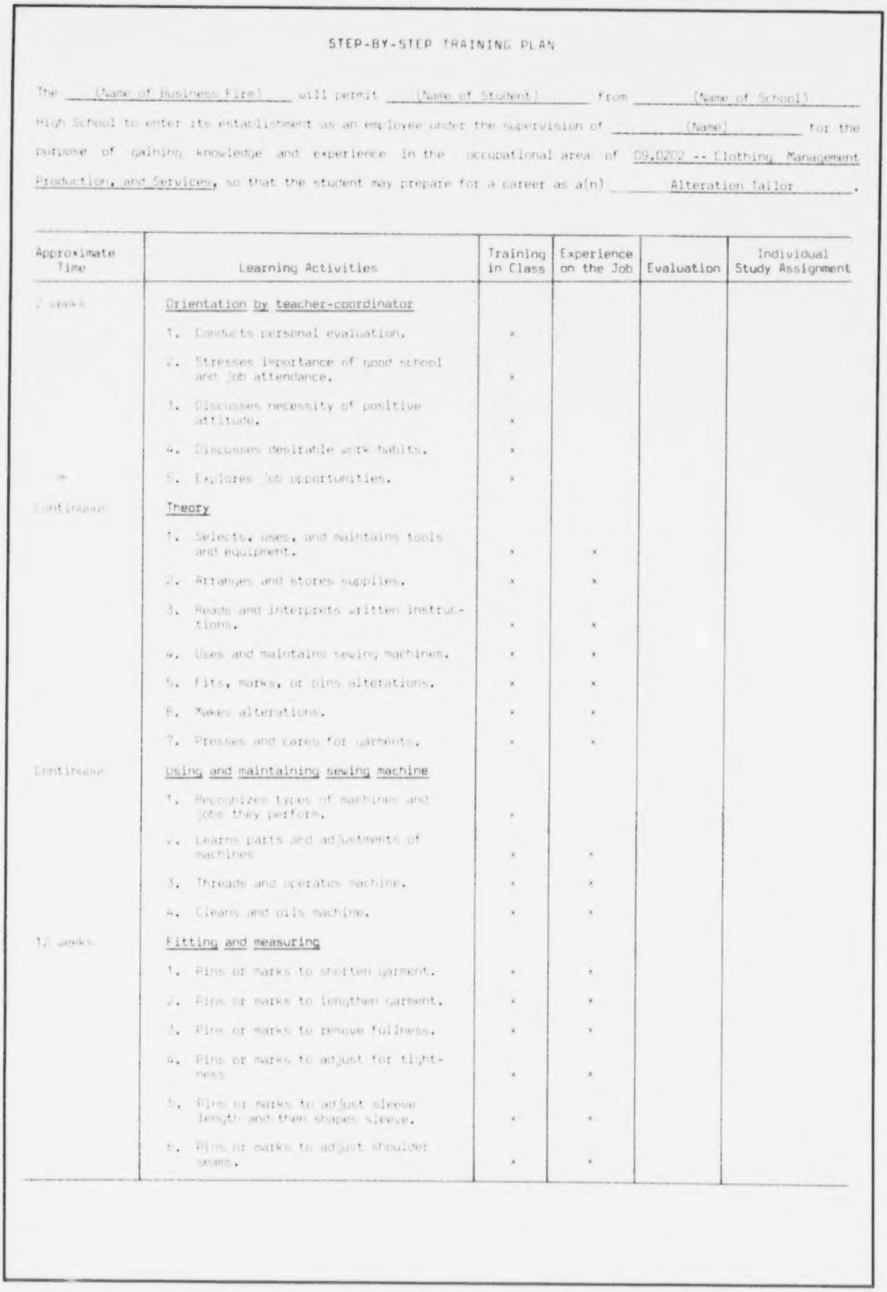
*John R. Darling and Raymond E. Taylor, "Upward Management: Getting in Step with the Boss," *Business*, College of Business Administration, Georgia State University, University Plaza, Atlanta, Vol. 36, No. 2, April–May–June 1986, p. 3.



STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN

The ___(Name of Business Firm)___ will permit ___(Name of Student)___ from ___(Name of School)___ High School to enter its establishment as an employee under the supervision of ___(Name)___ for the purpose of gaining knowledge and experience in the occupational area of 09.0202 -- Clothing Management Production, and Services, so that the student may prepare for a career as a(n) ___Alteration Tailor___.

Approximate Time	Learning Activities	Training in Class	Experience on the Job	Evaluation	Individual Study Assignment
2 weeks	Orientation by teacher-coordinator				
	1. Conducts personal evaluation.	x			
	2. Stresses importance of good school and job attendance.	x			
	3. Discusses necessity of positive attitude.	x			
	4. Discusses desirable work habits.	x			
	5. Explores job opportunities.	x			
Continuous	Theory				
	1. Selects, uses, and maintains tools and equipment.	x	x		
	2. Arranges and stores supplies.	x	x		
	3. Reads and interprets written instructions.	x	x		
	4. Uses and maintains sewing machines.	x	x		
	5. Fits, marks, or pins alterations.	x	x		
	6. Makes alterations.	x	x		
	7. Presses and cares for garments.	x	x		
Continuous	Using and maintaining sewing machine				
	1. Recognizes types of machines and jobs they perform.	x			
	2. Learns parts and adjustments of machines	x	x		
	3. Threads and operates machine.	x	x		
	4. Cleans and oils machine.	x	x		
12 weeks	Fitting and measuring				
	1. Pins or marks to shorten garment.	x	x		
	2. Pins or marks to lengthen garment.	x	x		
	3. Pins or marks to remove fullness.	x	x		
	4. Pins or marks to adjust for tightness	x	x		
	5. Pins or marks to adjust sleeve length and then shapes sleeve.	x	x		
	6. Pins or marks to adjust shoulder seams.	x	x		

FIG. 20-2. (Courtesy, Vocational Education Program Area, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Approximate Time	Learning Activities	Training in Class	Experience on the Job	Evaluation	Individual Study Assignment
12 weeks	Making alterations				
	1. Pins or marks.	x	x		
	2. Stitch as pinned or marked.	x	x		
	3. Removes old seams.	x	x		
	4. Presses.	x	x		
4 weeks	Stitching seams, darts, and hems				
	1. Pins or marks.	x	x		
	2. Stitches and cuts when necessary to eliminate drawing.	x	x		
	3. Presses when alterations is completed.	x	x		
1 week	Sewing in zipper application				
	1. Selects correct type and color.	x	x		
	2. Puts in zipper.	x	x		
	3. Presses enclosure.	x	x		
1 week	Hemming trousers				
	1. Measures from inseam.	x	x		
	2. Cuts off excess.	x	x		
	3. Hems with blind stitch machine.	x	x		
	4. Steam presses.	x	x		
1 week	Cuffing trousers				
	1. Measures from inseam.	x	x		
	2. Adds measurement required for turning cuff.	x	x		
	3. Cuts off excess.	x	x		
	4. Hems with blind stitch machine.	x	x		
	5. Turns cuff and then tacks on each side through top of seam.	x	x		
	6. Steam presses cuff.	x	x		
[illegible] weeks	Adjusting waistline on trousers				
	1. Measures waistline for adjustment.	x	x		
	2. Opens top of belt, leaving old seam in place until adjustment is made (removes belt carriers as necessary).	x	x		
	3. Tapers seam allowance to blend into original seam as fitting requires.	x	x		
	4. Removes old seam.	x	x		
	5. Opens tapered seam and presses flat.	x	x		
	6. Turns belt over seam, turning raw edges of seam under at an angle.	x	x		
	7. Stitches belt down by using a tack stitch.	x	x		
	8. Presses.	x	x		

FIG. 20-2 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Approximate Time	Learning Activities	Training in Class	Experience on the Job	Evaluation	Individual Study Assignment
1 week	Attaching pocket and flaps				
	1. Selects type according to style of garment.	x	x		
	2. Pins or tacks placement of flap or pocket.	x	x		
	3. Stitches and turns pocket.	x	x		
	4. Steam presses.	x	x		
1 week	Making buttonholes				
	1. Discusses types. a. Hand-made b. Machine-made (1) Keyhole (2) Straight (3) Bound	x	x		
	2. Selects type for garment.	x	x		
	3. Spaces and marks.	x	x		
	4. Stitches buttonhole.	x	x		
	5. Cuts opening.	x	x		
	6. Presses.	x	x		
1 week	Adding buttons				
	1. Selects size and type.	x	x		
	2. Spaces buttons.	x	x		
	3. Sews on buttons. a. Hand sews with and without shank. b. Machine sews with and without shank.	x	x		

FIG. 20-2 (Continued)

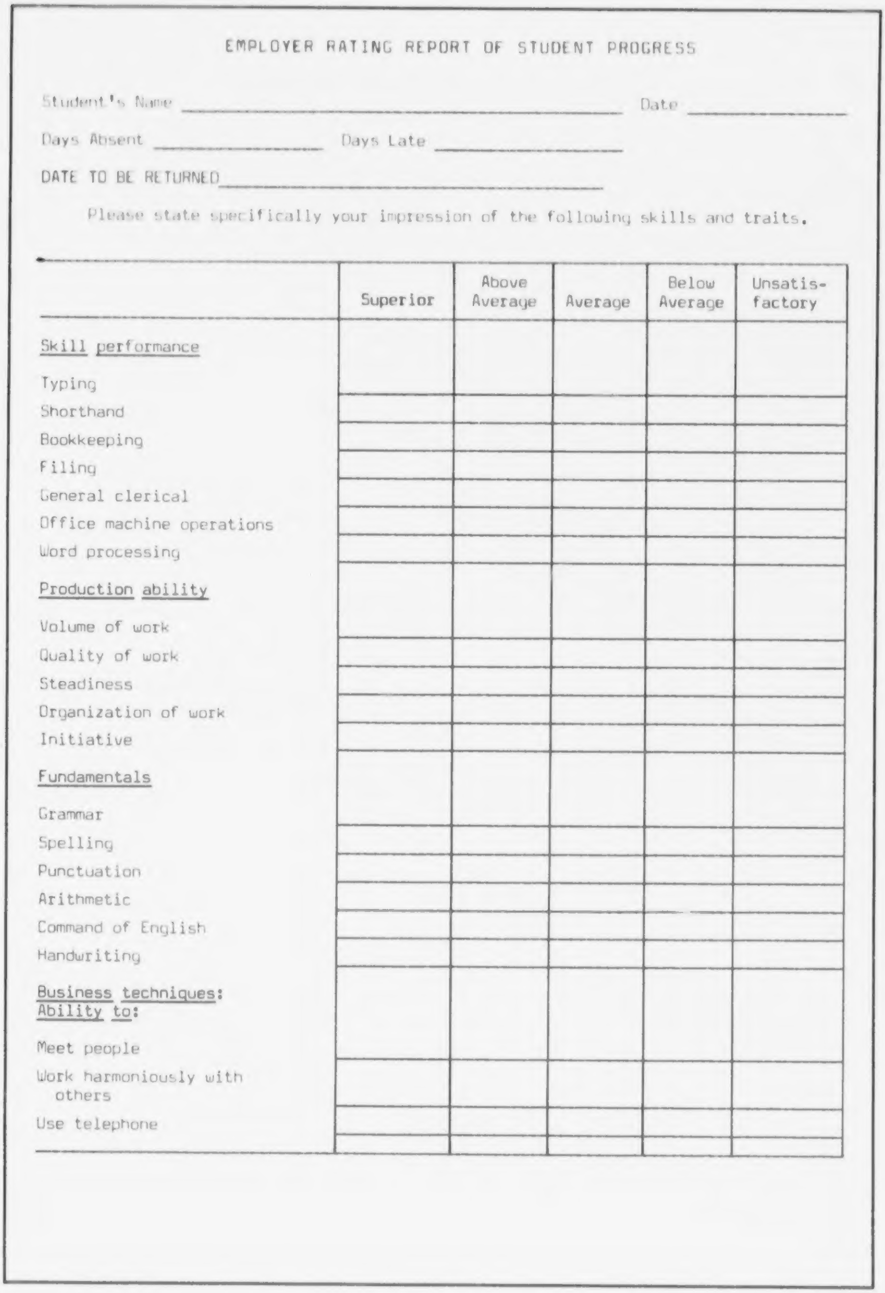
3. Acquainting the student workers with sources of additional information and skills development to enable each of them to progress in his/her chosen occupation.
4. Laying groundwork of aesthetic and moral values that will support what the students have learned previously under other teachers to enable them to assume whatever leadership role in business or industry they are capable of pursuing.

Student measurement takes the form of evaluated projects that have become progressively more difficult and revealing, such as performance tests during class time and on the job; written tests on classwork and on individual study in the classroom and on the job; ratings of job growth by the job sponsor; and personal growth revealed by participation in student activities, including the student organization.

Positive growth in several or all of the areas mentioned can be measured by criteria such as the following:

1. The student-learners have attained an acceptable or better level of technical background and skills adequate to perform in their chosen trades, or specialties.
2. The student-learners can use resource manuals and training manuals in their chosen fields.
3. The student-learners have attained an appreciation of the concept of work to the extent that they have the potential to succeed in their chosen fields or in a related family of occupations.
4. The student-learners can communicate acceptably with their supervisors and co-workers.
5. The employer-employee appreciation activity, or any other public display or function that is student-centered but coordinator-advised, reflects the skills acquired and the technical knowledge gained by the student-learners during the cooperative occupational education experience.
6. The student-learners can produce the quality of work desired in a quantity that meets the standards of the job.

Figure 20-3 illustrates an employer rating sheet for use each grade period. It is to be filled out by the teacher-coordinator in consultation with the on-the-job supervisor and sometimes in the presence of the student. The most effective technique is for the teacher-coordinator to make an appointment at the training station to hand-carry the evaluation form rather than to mail it or send it by the student. Figure 20-4 shows an alternative type of form.



EMPLOYER RATING REPORT OF STUDENT PROGRESS

Student's Name ______________________ Date __________

Days Absent __________ Days Late __________

DATE TO BE RETURNED ______________________

Please state specifically your impression of the following skills and traits.

	Superior	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Unsatis-factory
Skill performance					
Typing					
Shorthand					
Bookkeeping					
Filing					
General clerical					
Office machine operations					
Word processing					
Production ability					
Volume of work					
Quality of work					
Steadiness					
Organization of work					
Initiative					
Fundamentals					
Grammar					
Spelling					
Punctuation					
Arithmetic					
Command of English					
Handwriting					
Business techniques: Ability to:					
Meet people					
Work harmoniously with others					
Use telephone					

FIG. 20-3

EMPLOYER RATING REPORT OF STUDENT PROGRESS (Continued)

	Superior	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Unsatis-factory
Business techniques: Ability to (cont.):					
Use references (dictionary, etc.)					
Follow instructions					
Personal traits					
Appearance					
Attitude					
Health					
Personal hygiene					
Speech					
Adaptability					
Tact					
Accuracy					
Punctuality					
Manners					
Self-confidence					

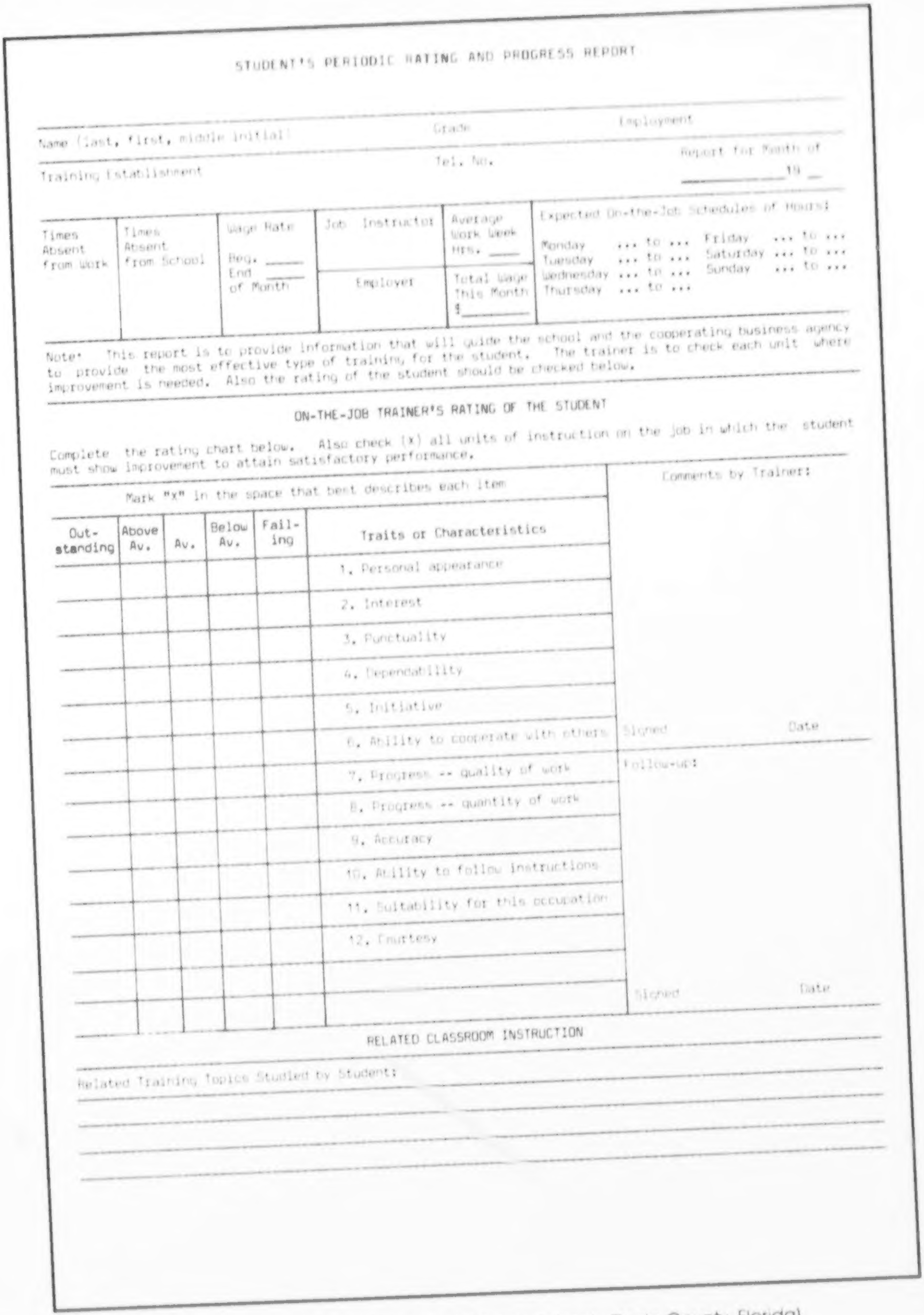
Other comments regarding personality and business qualifications in unusual strength or weakness: ______________________________

____

Name of Employer ______________________________

Signature of Supervisor ______________________________

FIG. 20-3 (Continued)



STUDENT'S PERIODIC RATING AND PROGRESS REPORT

Name (last, first, middle initial) Grade Employment

Training Establishment Tel. No. Report for Month of ________19 __

Times Absent from Work	Times Absent from School	Wage Rate Beg. ____ End ____ of Month	Job Instructor	Average Work Week Hrs. ____	Expected On-the-Job Schedules of Hours: Monday ... to ... Tuesday ... to ... Wednesday ... to ... Thursday ... to ... Friday ... to ... Saturday ... to ... Sunday ... to ...
			Employer	Total Wage This Month $______	

Note: This report is to provide information that will guide the school and the cooperating business agency to provide the most effective type of training for the student. The trainer is to check each unit where improvement is needed. Also the rating of the student should be checked below.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINER'S RATING OF THE STUDENT

Complete the rating chart below. Also check (x) all units of instruction on the job in which the student must show improvement to attain satisfactory performance.

Mark "x" in the space that best describes each item

Out-standing	Above Av.	Av.	Below Av.	Fail-ing	Traits or Characteristics
					1. Personal appearance
					2. Interest
					3. Punctuality
					4. Dependability
					5. Initiative
					6. Ability to cooperate with others
					7. Progress -- quality of work
					8. Progress -- quantity of work
					9. Accuracy
					10. Ability to follow instructions
					11. Suitability for this occupation
					12. Courtesy

Comments by Trainer:

Signed Date

Follow-up:

Signed Date

RELATED CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

Related Training Topics Studied by Student:

FIG. 20-4. (Courtesy, Dade County Public Schools, Dade County, Florida)

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a 20-minute talk that you could give before a civic club or professional group explaining the cooperative plan of home economics occupations. Prepare charts or other visual aids to supplement your talk. (Add the notes of this talk to your files.)
2. What are the minimum qualifications for becoming certified as a coordinator of the cooperative plan for home economics occupations? (Refer to your state's certification plan.)
3. What topics for related instruction would you add to those suggested in this chapter? If you were the teacher-coordinator, which areas would you emphasize the most?
4. If you were preparing a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing equipment and supplies for a cooperative home economics classroom, what essentials would you request the first year? What would be some desirable items you would put in your plan for purchase later on? Referring to current periodicals and state department handbooks should give you some ideas. (Add the notes of these ideas to your files.)
5. Analyze the learning outcomes that could be expected in a specific prospective training station in your local community. Determine the possibility of a student-learner's progress toward his/her career objective in this training station by the end of the school year. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to proceed.)
6. How do the activities of the FHA–HERO student organization provide educational experiences for student-learners?
7. Study current references on classroom equipment and floor plans. Draw a room layout to scale (½ inch equals 1 foot) and prepare an equipment list.
8. State the learning outcomes of a training plan in behavioral terms. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions.)

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

21

The Plan in Marketing Occupations

This marketing education teacher-coordinator provides her class with instruction in essential marketing principles.

KEY CONCEPT: *Marketing education is a vocational program of instruction designed to prepare youth and adults for careers in marketing and its related occupations.*

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify and list the 13 major occupational clusters within the instructional area of marketing education.
- Identify and list the goals of marketing education.
- Identify and explain the curriculum patterns for marketing education.
- Understand the curriculum framework for marketing education.
- Understand how to plan and develop a marketing education instructional facility.
- List the major sources of instructional materials for marketing education.
- Describe student-learner benefits gained from membership in DECA.
- Evaluate the marketing education plan.
- Understand the levels of employment used in marketing education.

KEY TERMS

competency
competency-based curriculum
instructional elements
levels of employment
marketing education (ME)
Marketing Education Resource Center
project laboratory (plan)
school store

The families of marketing occupations, as they are classified in the occupational taxonomy of the National Center for Education Statistics,[1] help teacher-coordinators to identify the career goals of students and to determine the needed competencies that form the basis of instruction. The major occupational families or clusters contained within this over-all category of marketing include:

08.01	Apparel and Accessories Marketing
08.02	Business and Personal Services Marketing
08.03	Entrepreneurship
08.04	Financial Services Marketing
08.05	Floristry, Farm and Garden Supplies Marketing
08.06	Food Marketing
08.07	General Marketing
08.08	Home and Office Products Marketing
08.09	Hospitality and Recreation Marketing
08.10	Insurance Marketing
08.11	Transportation and Travel Marketing
08.12	Vehicles and Petroleum Marketing
08.99	Marketing and Distribution, Other

In another federal publication, the instructional program of **marketing education (ME)** is clearly defined.

> [Marketing] Education includes various combinations of subject matter and learning experiences related to the performance of activities that direct the flow of goods and services, including their appropriate utilization, from the producer to the consumer or user. These activities include selling, and such sales-supporting functions as buying, transporting, storing, promoting, financing, marketing research and management.
>
> [Marketing] Education is comprised of programs of occupational instruction in the field of . . . marketing. These programs are designed to prepare individuals to enter, or progress or improve competencies in, [marketing] occupations. Emphasis is on the development of attitudes, skills, and understanding related to marketing merchandising and management. Instruction is offered at the secondary, postsecondary, and adult education levels and is structured to meet the gainful employment and entrepreneurship at specified occupational levels. [Marketing] occupations are found in such areas of economic activity as retail and wholesale trade, finance, insurance, real estate,

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[1] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*, Vocational–Technical Education Programs, National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, 1981, pp 183–184.

services and service trades, manufacturing, transportation, utilities, and communications.[2]

The Goals of the Marketing Education (ME) Program

Using a program approach, ME educators should begin by defining the occupations to be served, as discussed above. Next, they should consider the groups to be served and should accept the operational philosophy of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984, which outlines these groups.[3] Further, not only must their instructional program consist of preparatory job-entry and career development, but also it must be responsive to the needs for upgrading, advancement, and retraining.[4] With these service views in mind, ME educators should strive to fulfill the three basic "people-oriented" goals. They are:

1. To provide instruction in marketing.
2. To assist student-learners in improving their techniques.
3. To help student-learners develop an understanding of the economic and social responsibilities of those permitted to engage in marketing in a free, competitive society.

A total program of marketing education is a "people-oriented" program. It serves youth and adults—those employed in marketing and those who want to be; those who as employees, supervisors, and managers want to upgrade themselves; and those who seek advancement and promotion. To do this, a marketing education plan must include a secondary plan, a part-time adult plan, and a full-time mid-management curriculum beyond the high school.

A total program provides for many needs of the competent marketing worker or manager: basic operating skills, including safety; communications skills; understanding of economics; understanding of principles of marketing and merchandising; human relations skills; personal-social skills; healthy occupational attitudes; and technical information about products and processes.

The basic goal of marketing education is to aid student-learners who have career goals in marketing. It is a vocational program for those whose abilities range from lowest rank-and-file to management. Its success is measured by the development of occupational competence in each individual to the limits of that individual's abilities.

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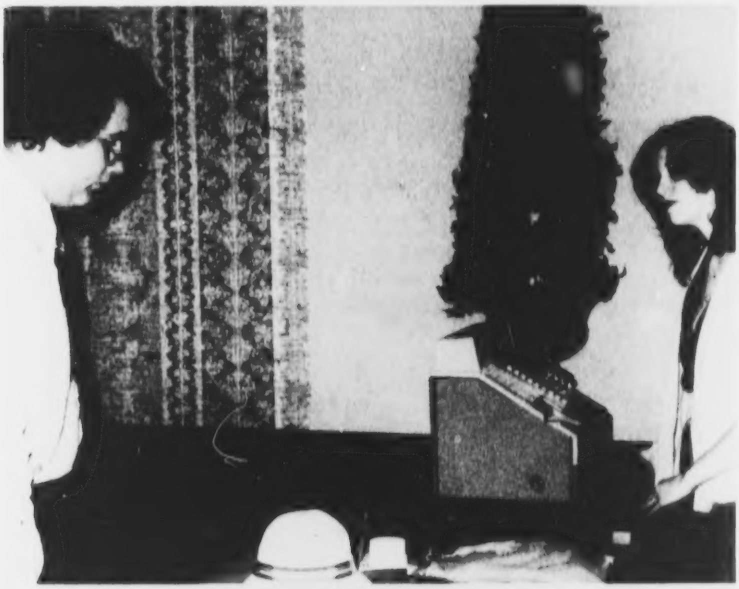
[2] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, *Standard Terminology for Curriculum and Instruction in Local and State School Systems*, Bull. OE-23052, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970. The word "marketing" has been substituted for the word "distribution," which was used in the original definition. The field was previously called "Distributive Education."

[3] Cf. p. 68.

[4] Cf. p. 68.



A very basic skill for marketing education students is operating a cash register by touch.

The Curriculum in Marketing Education

In the early years of marketing education, the secondary school cooperative plan was the entire marketing education preparatory curriculum. This situation still prevails in many localities. However, the "total program" philosophy has started a trend toward a broadened approach to education for marketing at the secondary level. This was enhanced by provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended in 1976, which provided federal acceptance of the project method of preparatory instruction. Those individuals using a program approach cannot and should not think of marketing education as a course. The program approach implies a series or a sequence of courses or instructional experiences, with specific areas of subject matter concerned with marketing clearly defined and in accord with the students' career goals.

While the total program approach to planning a program of education for marketing is paramount, ME educators must be wary that this end does not obscure the needs of some students. There are many situations, forces, and motivations at work in the school, home, and personal lives of students that dramatically affect their commitment to marketing as a career and their ability to profit from instruction. The total program approach must not be construed as an attempt to fit all students into the same mold, holding the same standards for all. ME educators must provide programs that are extremely flexible so that every student who can profit from instruction may have the opportunity to do so. "Employability" is the key end-result, and educators must tailor their programs to individuals having varying levels of ability, with full cognizance of the wide range of job demands in marketing.

TWO CURRICULUM APPROACHES

Two basic curriculum approaches that involve the cooperative marketing education plan exist at the secondary level. One approach is traditional; the other is contemporary.

The traditional approach.—In the traditional approach born out of 1936 federal legislation, the secondary marketing education curriculum and the cooperative plan are synonymous; that is, the cooperative plan is used during all phases of instruction. The curriculum is based on any one of three plans.

Plan A: Two years of instruction of one period daily plus cooperative experience in the occupational laboratory both years.

Plan B: One year of instruction of two periods plus cooperative experience for that one year.

Plan C: Two years of instruction of one period daily in the classroom and a related class plus cooperative experience in the occupational laboratory the twelfth year.

In these plans, it is atypical to have any required prerequisite courses, although some Plan C programs require a prerequisite eleventh-year course.

The contemporary approach.—The contemporary approach to the marketing education curriculum utilizes either the cooperative plan or the **project laboratory (plan)** as the capstone of the curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum would consist of preparatory (pre-vocational) courses of at least one year, such as introduction to marketing and merchandising, retailing, and sales techniques, followed by one of the following:

1. Cooperative (employment) instruction of at least one period for one year in school plus at least 450 hours (30 weeks times 15 hours) of instruction on the job (the occupational laboratory).
2. Project-related instruction plus the project laboratory where job experiences are simulated in the classroom.

The contemporary approach to the secondary marketing education curriculum makes the following phases of the curriculum mandatory.

1. General education in the common areas of language arts and communications, mathematics and science, social science physical and health education, and practical arts for general education, such as homemaking and industrial arts. For general education purposes, the marketing education student might well take courses such as general business and economics.
2. Business courses providing background in skills such as bookkeeping, typewriting, word processing, business math, and business organization and management.
3. Introductory courses in marketing, including retailing, sales techniques, and merchandising.
4. Employment instruction through the cooperative experience, including the related class of at least one period daily. This class might well be called "Marketing Education."

The courses described are not prescriptions. Rather, they are intended as illustrations of an approach to marketing education that conceives of a sequence of courses for which the cooperative experience becomes the capstone vocational experience.

In some situations, the marketing education curriculum includes more specialization than is shown in the general marketing education curriculum outlined here. In area vocational schools particularly, there are more specialized curricula, such as food distribution, soft goods (or fashion) merchandising, petroleum merchandising, and advertising and sales promotion. These specialized curricula are advanced courses based on core preparation in the marketing occupations.

SEQUENCE OF COURSES

Perhaps one of the most complete offerings in marketing education is in the state of Virginia, where students are introduced to marketing occupations early. For example, in Richmond, students explore various occupations, including marketing occupations, in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades.

Then, students may continue their marketing education in high school by taking the following sequence.[5]

Tenth Grade	Preparatory Marketing Education	1 credit
Eleventh Grade	Cooperative Marketing Education	2 credits
	or	
	Retailing and Sales Techniques	1 credit
Twelfth Grade	Cooperative Marketing Education	2 credits

A popular program in many states is one shown as Plan C in this chapter, where students enroll in retailing, marketing, and/or sales techniques in the eleventh grade as prerequisite to cooperative marketing education in the twelfth grade.

Eleventh Grade	Marketing Practices and Principles	
	or	
	Retailing and Sales Techniques	1 credit
Twelfth Grade	Related Classroom Instruction in Marketing Education	1 credit
	On-the-Job Training in Marketing Education	1 credit

Some states are moving to competency-based models. For example, Indiana developed and is using such a model divided into three levels. One level for each year of a three-year model is used, or the levels can be refined for a two-year program.

The competencies common to a variety of marketing occupations form the bases for the first two years. Common competencies for marketing management positions supply the foundation for the third year. Modified learning objectives, suggested learning activities, and appropriate materials are matched to the competencies.

Basing Instructional Content on Competency Needs

Since some major conferences in 1963, the marketing education curriculum has been philosophically based on the premise of developing competencies that relate to the task analysis of each student's career objectives. The

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[5] By 1980, several other states had implemented three-year secondary marketing education programs.

Nelson paper of 1964 was a landmark and has been followed by substantial task analysis research, such as that of Crawford, Carmichael, Ertel, Samson, and others.[6]

Additional research, including validation of the Crawford study, has been conducted by the **Marketing Education Resource Center** (formerly IDECC). The competencies identified by Crawford and IDECC were the original basis for the first national competency-based curriculum framework developed in 1986 by the national Marketing Education Curriculum Committee. Figure 21-1 illustrates the competency-based system utilized in marketing education.

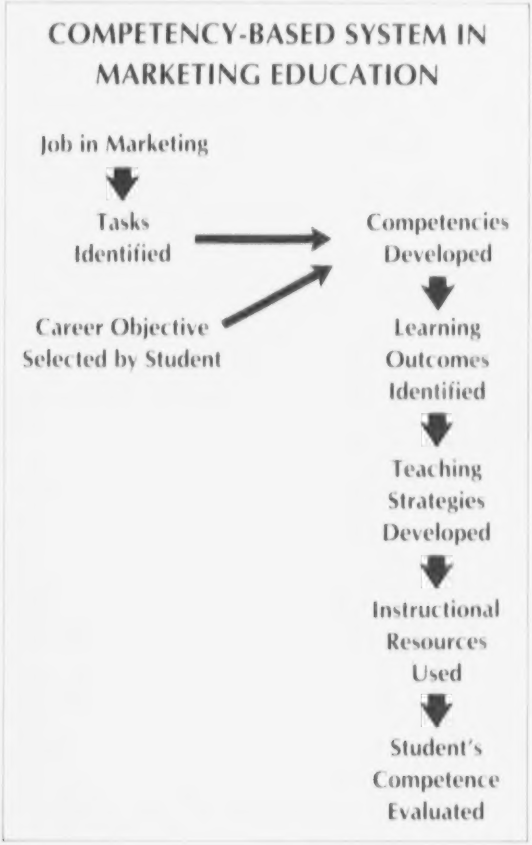
COMPETENCY-BASED SYSTEM IN MARKETING EDUCATION
Job in Marketing
Tasks Identified
Career Objective Selected by Student
Competencies Developed
Learning Outcomes Identified
Teaching Strategies Developed
Instructional Resources Used
Student's Competence Evaluated

FIG. 21-1. (From DECA transparency, Reston, Virginia, 1982)

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[6] For example, see Lucy Crawford, *A Competency Pattern Approach to Curriculum Construction in Distributive Teacher Education*, Vol. I–IV, ED-032383–032386, Blacksburg, Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1967, and Kenneth Ertel, *Clusters of Tasks Performed by Merchandising Employees Working in Three Standard Industrial Classifications of Retail Establishments*, ED-023911.

By using a **competency-based curriculum**, the student-learner benefits in several ways. These include:

1. The student-learner derives competencies from occupational roles in marketing—learning is relevant to marketing employment and advancement.
2. Before entering into the employment area, the student-learner knows what is involved in an occupation category.
3. The student is able to identify expectations—doesn't have to ask "Why am I doing this?"
4. The student-learner receives individualized and personal instruction within an occupational category.
5. The student-learner improves his/her ability to advance within a marketing occupation and to succeed within the business situation.
6. The combination of individualized instruction and a competency-based curriculum should bring about a more highly motivated learner as well as a better prepared worker.

Providing Effective Related Instruction

As indicated earlier, the term "related instruction" refers to the in-school instruction that is correlated with the period of occupational experience on the job. The nature of related instruction will differ, depending on whether or not the cooperative phase of instruction is preceded by required preparatory (pre-employment) courses in marketing. If no preparatory courses are required, then the related instruction phase must "begin from scratch"; if the basic principles have been covered in a preparatory class, the related instruction phase can concentrate on more advanced content. However, the objectives of instruction are similar in both cases, even though the distribution of topics will differ. Instruction must be concerned with the learners' need to acquire occupational skills, information, and job intelligence basic to all marketing occupations, as well as with their need for specialized skills and information requisite to their career objectives in marketing.

CHARACTERISTICS OF RELATED INSTRUCTION

The classroom phase of related instruction in cooperative marketing education is ideally suited to effective teaching in several respects.

First, ***student-learners*** are a selected group, with distinctive motivation. Each student-learner has expressed a career interest in the field of marketing, with the desire for a job either immediately upon graduation from high school or after further study in college. Each is of work age and has his/her parents' consent to work part time at a training station while he/she is attending school. With the aid of guidance counselors and with access to various school records, the teacher-coordinators select the students. With the same care and preparation, the teacher-coordinators select merchandising and service firms as training stations and assign student-learners to part-time jobs with pay.

Ideally, these students have had general business in grade 9, typewriting and/or record keeping in grade 10, and marketing, sales techniques, and retailing in grade 11. The marketing, sales techniques, and retailing courses may be considered to be preparatory training under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 if the state plan so stipulates.

Second, ***teacher-coordinators*** are the ones who have specialized in coordinating the learning experiences in the classroom with those encountered on the part-time jobs at the training stations. Teacher-coordinators have an unusual opportunity for achieving meaningful learning outcomes. In addition, they arrange with each supervisor on the job, or job sponsor, to carry out a carefully analyzed training program, and periodically they visit both the student-learners and the training station sponsors on the job.

Teacher-coordinators have met certain specific educational and experience requirements in order to be certified as coordinators and to qualify their high schools for reimbursement from vocational funds.

Third, this ***classroom portion*** of related instruction devotes a given amount of the daily class period to instructing all the students, in a more or less formal manner, on the subject matter of marketing; in addition, related instruction devotes a given amount of time to instructing each student individually on the specific subject matter needed on his/her job and for advancing his/her career objective.

THE BASIC AREAS OF RELATED INSTRUCTION

The curriculum framework for related instruction recommended by the Marketing Education Curriculum Committee contains two broad categories of instruction, which are called **instructional elements**. These two elements are labeled "Foundations for Marketing" and "Functions of Marketing." The degree of emphasis to be placed on each instructional area will vary by occupational level and according to the needs of the student-learner or local community. A core curriculum framework, using core competencies, has recently been developed and put into effect.

Definitions of each instructional area, and suggested or sample topics within each are shown as follows.

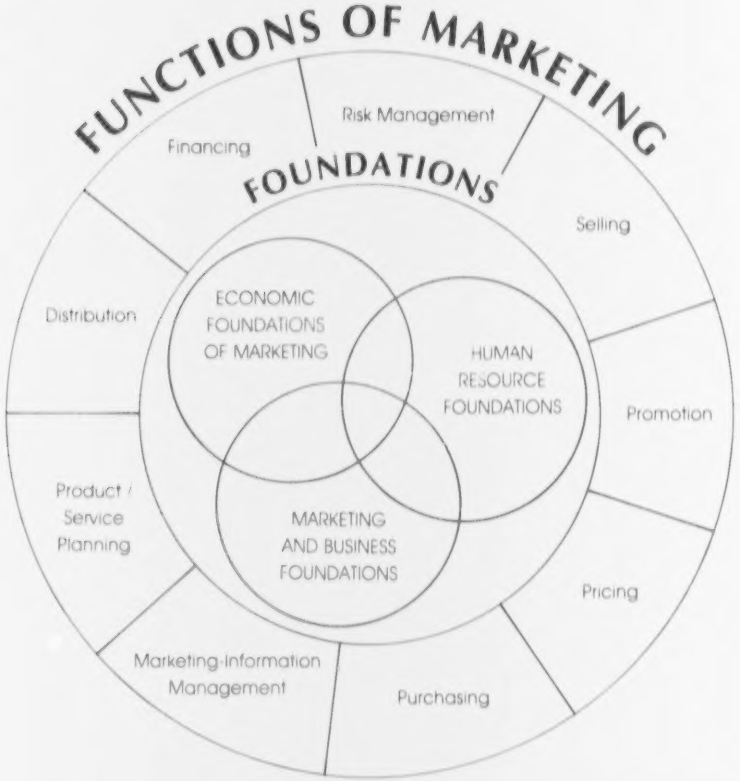
FUNCTIONS OF MARKETING
FOUNDATIONS
Financing
Risk Management
Selling
Promotion
Pricing
Purchasing
Marketing-Information Management
Product / Service Planning
Distribution
ECONOMIC FOUNDATIONS OF MARKETING
HUMAN RESOURCE FOUNDATIONS
MARKETING AND BUSINESS FOUNDATIONS

FIG. 21-2. (Courtesy, Marketing Education Curriculum Committee, Marketing Education Resource Center, Columbus, Ohio)

Marketing Education Curriculum Framework and Suggested Topics[7]

Foundations of Marketing

1. Economic foundations of marketing

Basic economic principles and concepts of free enterprise and free market economics that are fundamental to an understanding of marketing activities. Suggested topics include:

a. Basic Concepts
b. Economic Systems
c. Cost-Profit Relationships

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[7] The listing of the foundations and functions of marketing does not imply any instructional sequence. Suggested topics are only an indication of the nature of the competencies that can be developed within each area. No effort has been made to level these topics in terms of scope, depth, or similar variables.

d. International Concepts (of Trade and Interdependency)
e. Economic Trends and Indicators

2. **Human resource foundations**

Basic skills and understandings, critical to success in many occupations, that may be viewed as prerequisites or corequisites for the study of marketing in a vocational context. Suggested areas of study include:

a. Mathematics
b. Communications
c. Self-understanding
d. Interpersonal Skills
e. Career Development
f. Human Resource Management

3. **Marketing and business foundations**

Basic skills and understandings of the marketing concept and the business environment and management systems within which it is implemented. Suggested topics include:

a. Functions of Business
b. Ownership Structures
c. Marketing Functions and Concepts
d. Channels of Marketing
e. Management Functions
f. Budgeting Considerations
g. Business Operations
h. Specialized Applications of Business Operations

Marketing Functions and Applications

1. **Distribution**

Activities associated with the physical movement or transfer of ownership of a product or a service from producer to consumer. Suggested topics include:

a. Components of the Distribution Decision
b. Nature of Channels and Channel Members
c. Controlling Distribution and Coordinating Channel Relationships
d. Wholesale, Retail, and Specialist Business Activities and Functions
e. Inventory Management and Control
f. Transportation
g. Bulk Packaging
h. Storing

i. Receiving Processes
j. Management of the Distribution Function

2. Financing

Determining the need for and the availability of financial resources to facilitate marketing activities. Suggested topics include:

a. Budgeting for Financial Needs
b. Sources of Capital
c. Obtaining Business Credit
d. Extending Credit to Consumers and Other Organizations
e. Management of the Financing Function

3. Risk management

Managing marketing activities to optimize the relationships of potential loss to gain. Suggested topics include:

a. Pure and Speculative Risk
b. Controllable and Uncontrollable Factors
c. Insurable and Non-insurable Risks
d. Security and Safety Considerations
e. Management of the Variables Associated with Risk

4. Selling

Responding to consumer needs and wants through planned, personalized communications in order to influence purchase decisions and to insure satisfaction. Suggested topics include:

a. Understanding Customers/Clients
b. Processes and Techniques of Selling
c. Time and Activity Planning
d. Knowledge of Product and Service
e. Supporting Activities
f. Management of the Selling Function

5. Promotion

Communicating information about products, services, images, and/or ideas to influence purchase behavior. Suggested topics include:

a. The Communication Process
b. Promotional Mix
c. Public Relationships
d. Promotional Planning
e. Management of the Promotional Function

6. **Pricing**

Determining an exchange price at which the buyer and the seller perceive optimum value for the good or the service. Suggested topics include:

a. Pricing Objectives, Strategies, and Techniques
b. External Pricing Considerations
c. Determining Selling Prices
d. Adjusting Selling Prices
e. Implications of Credit on Price
f. Management of the Pricing Function

7. **Purchasing**

Planning and procedures necessary to obtain goods and services for use in the business or for resale. Suggested topics include:

a. Determining Purchase Needs
b. Identifying Sources
c. Purchasing Activities
d. Management of the Purchasing Function

8. **Marketing-information management**

Procedures and methods for the continuous gathering, analyzing, and disseminating of information to facilitate marketing decisions. Suggested topics include:

a. The Need for and the Uses of a Marketing-Information System
b. Using the Scientific Method in Problem-Solving
c. Forecasting
d. Conducting Research (Primary and Secondary)
e. Analyzing and Reporting Research
f. Using Appropriate Technology
g. Management of the Marketing-Information Function

9. **Product/service planning**

The process of developing the product or the service mix in response to market opportunities. Suggested topics include:

a. Market Opportunity Analysis
b. New Product/Service Planning
c. Components of the Product/Service Mix
d. Quality Assurance, Grades and Standards, Warranties and Guarantees
e. Product/Service Positioning and Image
f. Product/Service Performance Evaluation
g. Management of the Product/Service Planning Function

Employment Levels in Marketing Education

Employment levels in marketing education vary in complexity, ranging from simple to complex, in terms of assigned responsibilities and extent of skills and knowledges required. The marketing activities that take place at each level of employment can still be classified within the broad categories of marketing functions. Pre-baccalaureate marketing education is directed at instruction in the following five **levels of employment**. The marketing duties and the scope of competencies for each curriculum are also specified.[8]

1. ***Entry-level*** marketing occupations involve standard or routine activities with limited need for decision-making skills. These jobs may be obtained by individuals with no previous marketing education, experience, or commitment to a marketing career. Competencies required to secure and hold such jobs are good personal appearance, general business behavior, and basic skills such as math and communications.
2. ***Career-sustaining*** marketing occupations involve performing more complex duties, using routine decision-making skills, and having limited control of the working environment. Individuals in career-sustaining positions should have a basic understanding of the marketing concept and its foundations and have indicated an initial interest in marketing as a potential career.
3. ***Marketing specialist*** occupations involve frequent use of decision-making and leadership skills. Jobs at this level require mastery of marketing skills across functions or extensive technical knowledge skills in one function. Individuals in marketing specialist occupations need to have a thorough understanding of the marketing concept and its functions.
4. ***Marketing supervisor*** involves a high level of competence in decision-making and leadership. Individuals in this role are responsible for planning, coordinating, and supervising people. They may also be involved in the planning, coordinating, and supervising of marketing-related activities.
5. ***Manager-entrepreneur*** implies competence in a variety of tasks related to owning one's own business or managing a department within an organization. Individuals at this level are responsible for the success or failure of a unit within an organization or of a small business enterprise. A comprehensive understanding of marketing and management competencies is required to function in this role.

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[8] Marketing Education Curriculum Committee, Marketing Education Resource Center, Columbus, Ohio, 1987.

There are higher levels of employment in marketing that involve the preparation of individuals for top-level positions, such as executives of large companies. These positions usually require baccalaureate degrees or extensive experience and thorough comprehension of the theories of marketing and their application to corporate activity.

Instructional Facilities and Equipment

The cooperative marketing education plan requires an instructional laboratory conducive to vocational instruction in marketing in the same way that laboratories are necessary for instruction in chemistry, music, and physical education.

THE MARKETING EDUCATION CLASSROOM

While it is true that marketing education trains individuals for all areas of marketing, it is equally true that in the secondary cooperative plan, the majority of the student-learners will be placed in retail stores. Therefore, the marketing education laboratory-classroom should simulate merchandising conditions, providing space and equipment necessary for practice activities in areas such as display, sales techniques, store systems, and stockkeeping. In addition, the classroom should be equipped to facilitate both large- and small-group instruction through discussion, role-playing, demonstration, individual project study, and other methods. To do this, the laboratory needs tables and chairs plus files and library shelves. An adjoining but separate office is desirable so that the coordinator can administer the plan even though the classroom is in use.

The question sometimes raised by administrators is "Isn't this classroom expensive when it is used only one or two hours a day?" Actually, the room can be used during other hours by the marketing education preparatory classes, such as those in marketing, general retailing, and sales techniques. In addition, if display cases and files are locked, the room is ideal for classes in general business, business organization, and bookkeeping. It also makes an excellent adult education classroom.

The marketing education classroom is ideally located on the first floor, where hallway display cases can be seen by visitors. A location close to, or part of, the business education suite is desirable to foster and to maintain a close relationship between office personnel and marketing education faculty members.

Equipping the classroom. — The classroom should be furnished so as to provide the atmosphere of the marketing business as much as possible through the use of appropriate display equipment, a store counter, and other store equipment and supplies.[9] In most states, a staff member from the state board of vocational education (state supervisor or consultant in marketing education) or a teacher-educator can be called on to assist in recommending equipment to fit the needs of a specific community or school system. The local marketing education advisory committee should also be asked for advice. The teacher-coordinator might make a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing the following equipment and supplies. A classroom such as that described will cost, completely equipped, about $15,000 to $20,000, depending on the quality and extent of furnishings.

Furniture, Built-in

Bulletin board, chalkboard, display case, storage lockers, bookcases, shelves, full-length mirror, and wash basin.

Furniture, Portable

Teacher's desk and chair, bookcases, telephone (individual or the departmental phone), individual tables with chairs to match (tablet arm chairs are not suitable), two waste baskets, card-size filing cabinet, letter-size filing cabinet, counter displays, shelves, magazine rack, spotlights for window display, extension cords, peg board and equipment, and clock.

Machine and Tools

Cash register, typewriter, adding machine, spirit process or mimeograph duplicator, sign maker, paper cutter, staplers (hand and gun), paper punch, hammer, T-square, saw, tin snips, screwdriver, and display tools, including brushes, pens, and microcomputers.

Audio-visual Aids

Overhead projector, 16mm projector (sound), screen slide projector, record player, tape recorder, 3" x 4" flannelboard, dark blinds for windows, and, if possible, a videotape recorder.

Securing Desired Learning Experiences on the Job

The step-by-step training plan should make the *cooperative* marketing education plan sharply distinctive from a *work experience* plan, with respect to

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[9] See Figures 21-3 and 21-4, which are examples of floor plans of marketing education classroom facilities. Figures 21-3 is from "Distributive Education Facilities 1964," by Warren G. Meyer and Wayne G. Little, *American Vocational Journal*, January 1964.

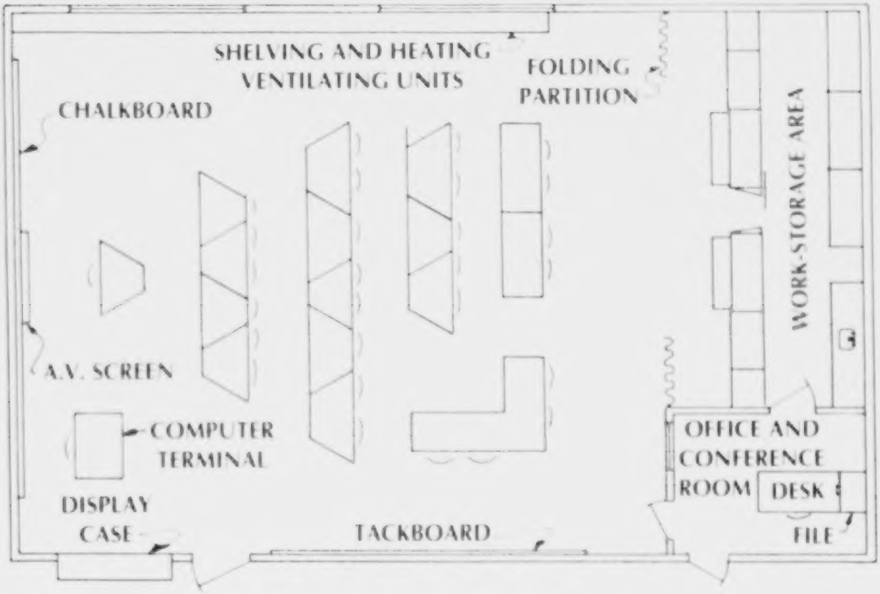

SHELVING AND HEATING VENTILATING UNITS
FOLDING PARTITION
CHALKBOARD
WORK-STORAGE AREA
A.V. SCREEN
COMPUTER TERMINAL
OFFICE AND CONFERENCE ROOM
DESK
DISPLAY CASE
TACKBOARD
FILE

FIG. 21-3. Floor plan for a secondary marketing education related instruction room with office and conference area and work-storage area.

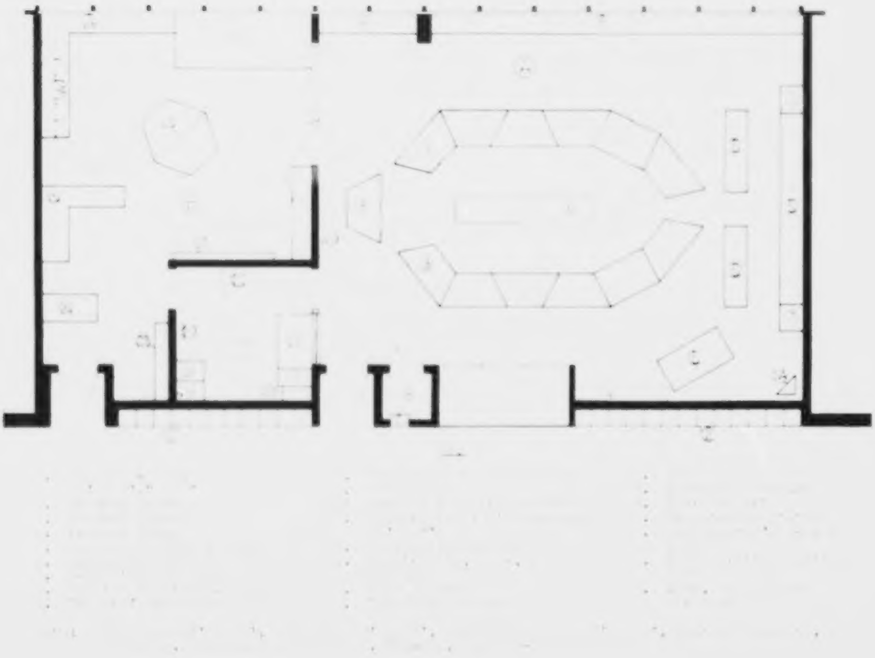


FIG. 21-4

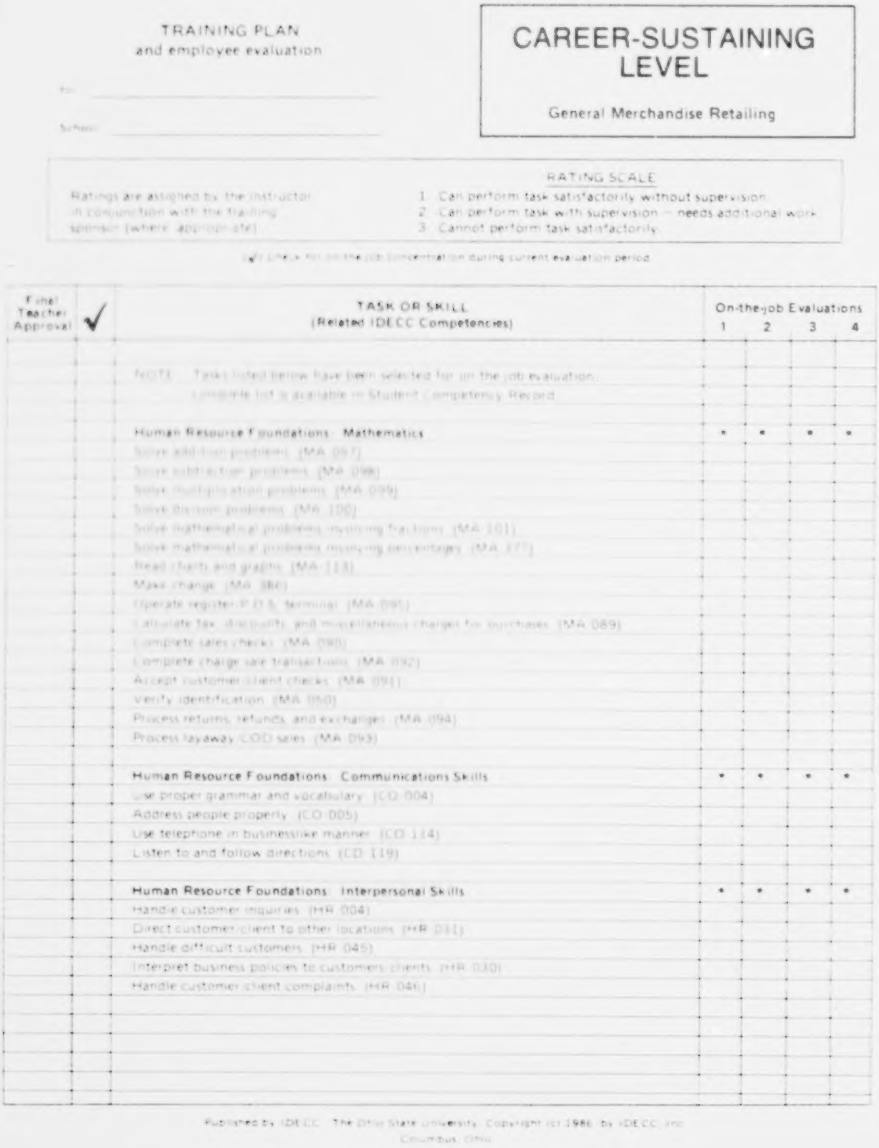
occupational education and career development. This step-by-step plan makes a special attempt to relate the classroom instruction specifically to on-the-job training so that the student can gain all the potential learning advantages therefrom. It serves as the basis for guiding the student-learner through worthwhile educational experiences on the job.

The step-by-step training plan indicates the specific objective to be emphasized and whether it is to be stressed in the classroom or at the training station or both. It is derived jointly by the teacher-coordinator and the training station sponsor from a realistic analysis of the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the student-learner on the part-time job. The development of these specific training plans, together with follow-up activities on them, becomes one of the most important activities of the teacher-coordinator during coordination time.

Successful practitioners in marketing education differ in their approach to the preparation of a training plan. In some school districts, the related class instruction teacher may not be the same person who coordinates the job training experiences. In some cases it would be difficult to make the best use of training plans or to facilitate the operation of the cooperative method as theoretically conceived. Even in states where teacher-coordinators teach the classroom phase and coordinate the job training, the methods of preparing the training plan differ. For example, the Marketing Education Resource Center (formerly IDECC) recommends the use of training plan and employer evaluation, as illustrated in Figure 21-5. Such a training plan assesses what occurred during a student-learner's experiences at a training station. It can serve as an evaluation of the effectiveness of the training station, or it can serve to prepare a training plan for some future student-learner in the particular training situation. In addition, training plans can be expressed in behavioral terms or as competency statements.

EVALUATING THE STUDENT-LEARNERS' PROGRESS

Evaluation of the student-learners in regard to the classroom instruction is based on performance on (1) written subject matter assignments, (2) work in assigned manuals, (3) oral presentations, and (4) individual and group projects. The evaluation of the student-learners' on-the-job learning and performance progress is based on (1) observations of the teacher-coordinator, (2) a check of the student-learners' weekly job reports, (3) the teacher's discussion with the training station sponsors regarding the training profile or the step-by-step training plan, and (4) employee rating sheets filled out by the training station sponsors.



TRAINING PLAN
and employee evaluation

For: ______________________

School: ______________________

CAREER-SUSTAINING LEVEL

General Merchandise Retailing

Ratings are assigned by the instructor in conjunction with the training sponsor (where appropriate)

RATING SCALE
1. Can perform task satisfactorily without supervision
2. Can perform task with supervision — needs additional work
3. Cannot perform task satisfactorily

(✓) Check for on-the-job concentration during current evaluation period

Final Teacher Approval	✓	TASK OR SKILL (Related IDECC Competencies)	On-the-job Evaluations 1	2	3	4
		NOTE: Tasks listed below have been selected for on the job evaluation. Complete list is available in Student Competency Record				
		Human Resource Foundations: Mathematics	•	•	•	•
		Solve addition problems (MA 097)				
		Solve subtraction problems (MA 098)				
		Solve multiplication problems (MA 099)				
		Solve division problems (MA 100)				
		Solve mathematical problems involving fractions (MA 101)				
		Solve mathematical problems involving percentages (MA 177)				
		Read charts and graphs (MA 113)				
		Make change (MA 086)				
		Operate register/P.O.S. terminal (MA 095)				
		Calculate tax, discounts, and miscellaneous charges for purchases (MA 089)				
		Complete sales checks (MA 090)				
		Complete charge sale transactions (MA 092)				
		Accept customer/client checks (MA 091)				
		Verify identification (MA 050)				
		Process returns, refunds, and exchanges (MA 094)				
		Process layaway/COD sales (MA 093)				
		Human Resource Foundations: Communications Skills	•	•	•	•
		Use proper grammar and vocabulary (CO 004)				
		Address people properly (CO 005)				
		Use telephone in businesslike manner (CO 114)				
		Listen to and follow directions (CO 119)				
		Human Resource Foundations: Interpersonal Skills	•	•	•	•
		Handle customer inquiries (HR 004)				
		Direct customer/client to other locations (HR 031)				
		Handle difficult customers (HR 045)				
		Interpret business policies to customers/clients (HR 030)				
		Handle customer/client complaints (HR 046)				

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Columbus, Ohio

FIG. 21-5

Ratings are assigned by the instructor in conjunction with the training sponsor (where appropriate)	RATING SCALE 1 Can perform task satisfactorily without supervision 2 Can perform task with supervision — needs additional work 3 Cannot perform task satisfactorily

(✓) Check for on-the-job concentration during current evaluation period

Final Teacher Approval	✓	TASK OR SKILL (Related IDECC Competencies)	On-the-job Evaluations 1	2	3	4
		Human Resource Foundations Management	•	•	•	•
		Orient new employees (MN 078)				
		Operational Concepts	•	•	•	•
		Handle company equipment properly (OP 696)				
		Operate calculator (OP 133)				
		Complete housekeeping responsibilities (OP 077)				
		Distribution Physical Distribution	•	•	•	•
		Determine processing priorities (DS 006)				
		Check incoming stock (DS 007)				
		Reconcile shipping/receiving discrepancies (DS 008)				
		Process returned/damaged product (DS 009)				
		Process returns to vendors (DS 010)				
		Price mark stock (stamps, tags, tickets, etc.) (DS 011)				
		Maintain stock levels (DS 023)				
		Complete stock counts (DS 025)				
		Financing Credit	•	•	•	•
		Facilitate credit applications (FI 003)				
		Promotion Visual Merchandising/Display	•	•	•	•
		Maintain displays (PR 052)				
		Care for live plants (PR 053)				
		Dismantle displays (PR 054)				
		Decorate business/department (PR 068)				
		Risk Management Safety Considerations	•	•	•	•
		Use safety precautions (RM 010)				
		Selling Process and Techniques	•	•	•	•
		Open the sales presentation (SE 869)				
		Question/Probe for information (SE 024)				
		Suggest product substitutions (SE 871)				
		Demonstrate product (SE 893)				
		Use feature/benefit selling (SE 873)				
		Selling Product Knowledge	•	•	•	•
		Obtain product information from sources on/with the item (SE 011)				
		Use company promotional material for selling information (SE 012)				
		Obtain product information from appropriate individuals (SE 010)				
		Selling Support Activities	•	•	•	•
		Arrange alterations (SE 825)				
		Arrange delivery of purchases (SE 023)				
		Wrap/Package products (SE 887)				
		Process special orders (SE 009)				
		Sell gift certificates (SE 016)				
		Process telephone orders (SE 835)				

FIG. 21-5 (Continued)

GENERAL EVALUATION

Ratings are assigned by the instructor
in conjunction with the training sponsor
(where appropriate)

RATING SCALE
1 Excellent, above average
2 Acceptable, but improvement possible
3 Not acceptable, needs significant improvement

HUMAN RESOURCE FOUNDATIONS (Related IDECC Competencies)	Grading Period Ending 1	2	3	4
Self-Understanding: Personality Traits	•	•	•	•
Maintain appropriate personal appearance (HR 263)				
Maintain positive attitude (HR 274)				
Demonstrate interest and enthusiasm (HR 303)				
Demonstrate responsible behavior (HR 022)				
Demonstrate honesty and integrity (HR 312)				
Demonstrate orderly and systematic behavior (HR 267)				
Demonstrate initiative (HR 317)				
Demonstrate self-control (HR 294)				
Self-Understanding: Self-Development	•	•	•	•
Use feedback for personal growth (HR 295)				
Adjust to change (HR 301)				
Set personal goals (HR 014)				
Interpersonal Skills	•	•	•	•
Foster positive working relationships (HR 269)				
Show empathy for others (HR 028)				
Use appropriate assertiveness (HR 021)				
General Work Habits	•	•	•	•
Promptness and attendance				
Dependability				
Overall quality of work				

Validating Signatures

1. (student employee) (date)
(employer) (date)
(teacher-coordinator) (date)

2. (student employee) (date)
(employer) (date)
(teacher-coordinator) (date)

3. (student employee) (date)
(employer) (date)
(teacher-coordinator) (date)

4. (student employee) (date)
(employer) (date)
(teacher-coordinator) (date)

FIG. 21-5 (Continued)

GUIDING THE DECA CHAPTER

The general principles of utilizing student organization activities as learning experiences are covered thoroughly in Chapter 14. However, there are some chapter practices that are specific to the marketing education program and to the competencies of marketing and management.[10]

DECA advisors and students participate in a Casino Night at a State Leadership Conference. Social activities such as this are an important part of an active DECA chapter.

Chapter meetings are often held during the related class period, a satisfactory time because the student organization program is part of the instructional program. However, some teacher-coordinators hold meetings in the evening, while some utilize the "zero" period—that is, the half-hour prior to the time school actually begins in the morning. Local student chapter activities should involve community business resources to further career objectives in marketing. For example, a fashion buyer, an insurance agent, a purchasing agent, or an industrial sales representative can be invited to present a short talk on careers in his/her particular field; a display person can demonstrate good design; a chamber of commerce representative can discuss current economic problems, such as downtown renewal and the local tax base.[11]

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[10] See William A. Stull and Charles Beall, "Integrating Competency-based DECA Competitive Events into the Marketing and DE Curriculum," *The Balance Sheet*, Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., January 1980, p. 154.

[11] Other ideas are presented in Chapter 14.

Financing student organization activities provides many opportunities for putting into practice the principles of marketing and merchandising. Some specific money-making activities used by marketing education student organizations are: (1) operating the concession stands at athletic events, with profits split with the athletic committee; (2) operating the **school store**; (3) engaging in sales promotions, such as selling candy or desk calendars (with advertisements); (4) holding dances; and (4) sponsoring skating parties.

National DECA can provide local chapters with a list of approved sales and marketing sales projects. These reputable companies offer an acceptable margin of profit as well as items that have maximum acceptance by the public.

Another highlight of the school year is preparing for competency-based competitive events (both series and written), individual participating events, and chapter events. A competency-based event is a "learning activity designed to evaluate a student's development of the essential competencies needed for entry or advancement in marketing occupations in which the student competes with other students on predetermined standards."[12] In their activity, students compete at either the master employee level (entry level) or the supervisory (mid-management or supervisory) level. Each activity consists of a series of three to five individual events (based on instructional areas) within a single occupational category.

Official Competitive Events List

ME: Master Employee Level
SL: Supervisory Level

High School Division

Competency-based Series Competition

1. Advertising and Display Services, ME
2. Apparel and Accessories Marketing, ME
3. Apparel and Accessories Marketing, SL
4. Finance and Credit Services, ME
5. Food Marketing, ME
6. Food Marketing, SL
7. General Marketing, ME
8. General Marketing, SL
9. J.C. Penney General Merchandise Retailing, ME
10. J.C. Penney General Merchandise Retailing, SL
11. Johnson & Wales Full Service Restaurant Management
12. Hardee's Quick Serve Restaurant Management
13. Vehicles and Petroleum Marketing

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[12] National DECA transparency, Reston, Virginia, 1987.

Competency-based Written Events

1. Apparel and Accessories Marketing, Written Event
2. NFIB Entrepreneurship, Written Event
3. Finance and Credit Marketing, Written Event
4. Food Marketing, Written Event
5. General Merchandise Retailing, Written Event

Individual Participating Events

1. NFIB Entrepreneurship, Participating Event (Organizing a Business)

2. Phillips Free Enterprise, Individual

Chapter Events

1. Creative Marketing Research Project
2. Pepsi Learn-and-Earn Project
3. Phillips Free Enterprise, Chapter
4. Chapter Public Relations Project
5. 7-Up/MDA Civic Consciousness Project

Delta Epsilon Chi Division

Competency-based Series Events

1. Apparel and Accessories Marketing, SL
2. Finance and Credit Services, ME
3. Food Marketing, SL
4. General Marketing, SL
5. J.C. Penney General Merchandise Retailing, SL
6. Johnson & Wales Full Service Restaurant Management
7. Hotel/Motel Management

Chapter Competition

1. 7-Up/MDA Civic Consciousness Project

General Functional Area Competitive Events

1. Advertising Campaign
2. NFIB Entrepreneurship, Participating Event (Organizing a Business)
3. NFIB Entrepreneurship, Written Event
4. Fashion Merchandising
5. Industrial Marketing
6. Management Decision Making, Human Relations
7. Management Decision Making, Merchandising
8. Sales Manager Meeting
9. Sales Promotion Plan
10. Sales Representative

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Today's marketing education teachers can choose from an abundance of instructional materials. Textbooks, workbooks, games and simulations, computer programs, quizzes and tests, and audio-visuals are produced by two major publishers and a variety of state and national curriculum materials centers. Teacher-coordinators can obtain information on available materials by writing to the following addresses.

Gregg Division
McGraw-Hill Book Co.
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

South-Western Publishing Co.
5101 Madison Road
Cincinnati, OH 45227

Marketing Education Resource Center (formerly IDECC)
The Ohio State University
1564 West First Avenue
Columbus, OH 43212

Curriculum and Instructional Materials Center
The Ohio State University
842 West Goodale Avenue
Columbus, OH 43212

Instructional Materials Center
Division of Extension
P.O. Box 7218
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78713

DECA Related Materials
1908 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

In addition, materials can be obtained from businesses and industries, as well as current trade and business publications, such as *Advertising Age*, *Business Week*, and *Chain Store*.

Thus, it is easy to see why DECA is an important part of the student's competency development. It is the responsibility of the marketing education teacher-coordinator and/or DECA advisor to insure that the student-learners are being taught in the classroom and on the job those competencies that will make them employable. DECA can be a real co-curricular activity when it is properly integrated into classroom and on-the-job instruction. Remember the adage "Teach your subject and you will not have to teach the contest."

EVALUATING THE ME PLAN

Evaluation of the ME plan involves both short-range evaluation of each year's progress and long-range evaluation covering a span of years, such as a five-year period. (General methods of evaluating the cooperative plan are discussed in Chapter 15.)

Continuous evaluation.—Teacher-coordinators should continually be evaluating themselves as they teach and coordinate, noting in what areas they need improvement. In addition, at the end of each year, teacher-coordinators should make a written report to their administration in which they summarize the year's progress. They should also make a brief annual follow-up to determine the employment status of the previous year's graduates.

The cooperative marketing education plan is continually evaluated by the advisory committee, which meets regularly. The effectiveness of this commit-

CASE-IN-POINT

Jenny McAfee graduated with a B.S. in Marketing Education from the state college near her home. Soon after her graduation, Jenny married and stayed home to be a homemaker and then a mother. Once her two boys were in school, Jenny sought employment and was hired as a marketing education coordinator in a county high school.

Having been away from the field for eight years, Jenny felt rather "out of it." She made an appointment with her college marketing education teacher-educator, who reviewed with her recent changes in the field and who gave her suggestions of sources where she could look for help in developing her curriculum.

Using the state marketing education curriculum guide, her former teacher-educator recommended that she write to the Marketing Education Resource Center for a catalog of available materials. Since her state was a member, she was entitled to a discount on her purchases.

From the Marketing Education Resource Center, Jenny learned she could specialize the general marketing curricula of her state. For a small cost, the Marketing Education Resource Center would send her a computerized listing of competencies needed by her students according to their individual career choices. Jenny also found this list and accompanying learning activity packets (LAPS) helpful in preparing her students for DECA competitive events. In addition, she could order questions prepared for previous DECA competitive events.

Jenny is now a firm believer in the Marketing Education Resource Center and the Texas Instructional Materials Center, both of which supply excellent instructional materials to supplement the necessary textbooks needed in the marketing education classroom.

tee as an evaluative body depends on the leadership strength of the teacher-coordinator and on the cooperation gained from the committee.

Teacher-coordinators can informally study the work of graduates on the job by visiting business establishments in the community. Periodically, they can profit from making a formal survey.

In this type of plan, the regular school class discussions afford unusual opportunities for student participation in the evaluation of the plan. Teacher-coordinators should always be in command of the discussions, with the student's giving their main attention to their respective learning tasks.

Long-range evaluation.—Teacher-coordinators should make an intensive and formal evaluation of their programs at least once every five to seven years. This evaluation would include outside assistance from the state department staff and teacher-educators. Figure 21-6 is an example of an evaluation form utilized by state consultants in Indiana. In addition, the review should involve other school personnel, such as administrators, and the advisory committee representing the business community.[13]

The following questions will assist local authorities in determining the quality and status of the marketing education plan.

Advisory Committee

Does the committee meet regularly?

Does a good *esprit de corps* exist?

Are there frank discussions and helpful suggestions?

Does the teacher-coordinator command the respect of businesspersons as the expert in education?

Follow-Up on Graduates

Do the graduates continue to work for the same firms, or do they change jobs soon?

Do employed graduates continue in some phase of marketing?

Are student-learners helped or hindered in job selection by the school business program?

Is the scope of the student-learners' education in marketing unnecessarily narrowed by their specific on-the-job training?

Is there sufficient emphasis upon related school course work?

How many students of college calibre continue their studies in marketing programs in colleges?

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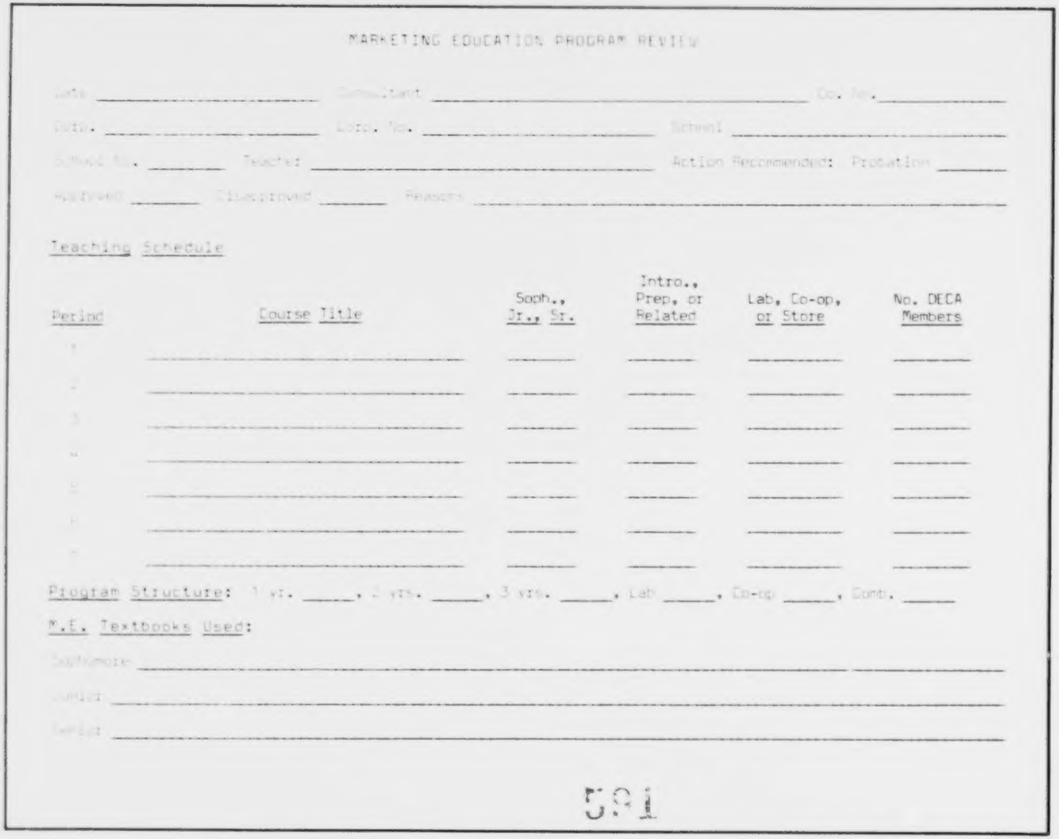
[13] Many states now have developed their own evaluative criteria (see Chapter 15).



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW

Date ____________ Consultant ____________________ Co. No. ________

Corp. ____________ Corp. No. ____________ School ______________

School No. ______ Teacher ____________________ Action Recommended: Probation ______

Approved ______ Disapproved ______ Reasons ______________________________

Teaching Schedule

Period	Course Title	Soph., Jr., Sr.	Intro., Prep, or Related	Lab, Co-op, or Store	No. DECA Members
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					

Program Structure: 1 yr. _____, 2 yrs. _____, 3 yrs. _____, Lab _____, Co-op _____, Comb. _____

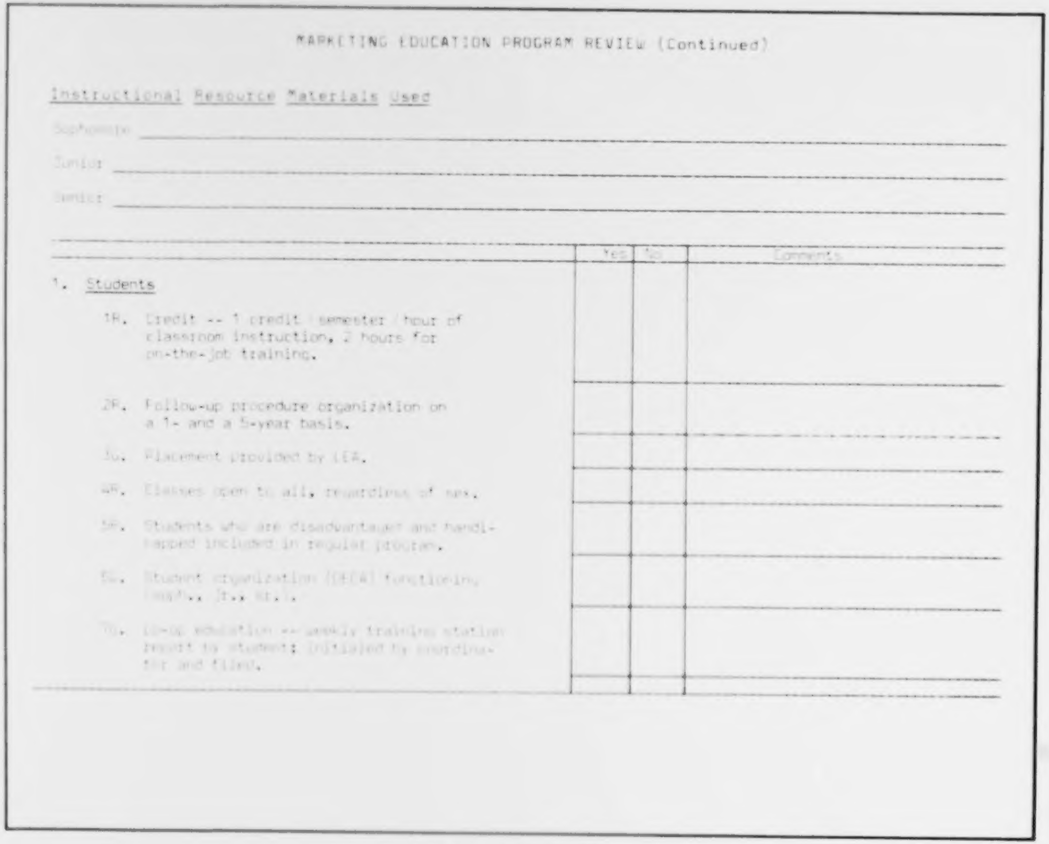
M.E. Textbooks Used:

Sophomore ______________________________

Junior ______________________________

Senior ______________________________

FIG. 21-6. (Courtesy, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Indianapolis, Indiana)



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW (Continued)

Instructional Resource Materials Used

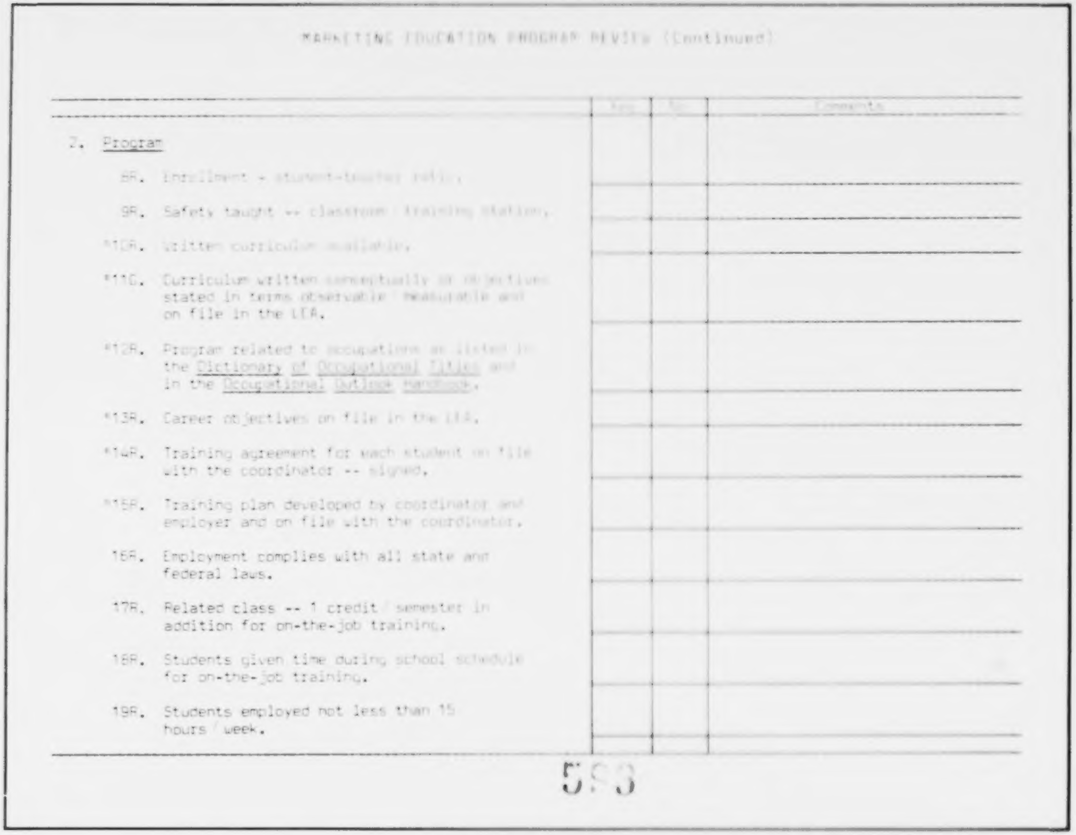
Sophomore ____________________

Junior ____________________

Senior ____________________

	Yes	No	Comments
1. Students			
1R. Credit -- 1 credit / semester / hour of classroom instruction, 2 hours for on-the-job training.			
2R. Follow-up procedure organization on a 1- and a 5-year basis.			
3G. Placement provided by LEA.			
4R. Classes open to all, regardless of sex.			
5R. Students who are disadvantaged and handicapped included in regular program.			
6G. Student organization (DECA) functioning (Soph., Jr., Sr.).			
7G. Co-op education -- weekly training station report to student; initialed by coordinator and filed.			

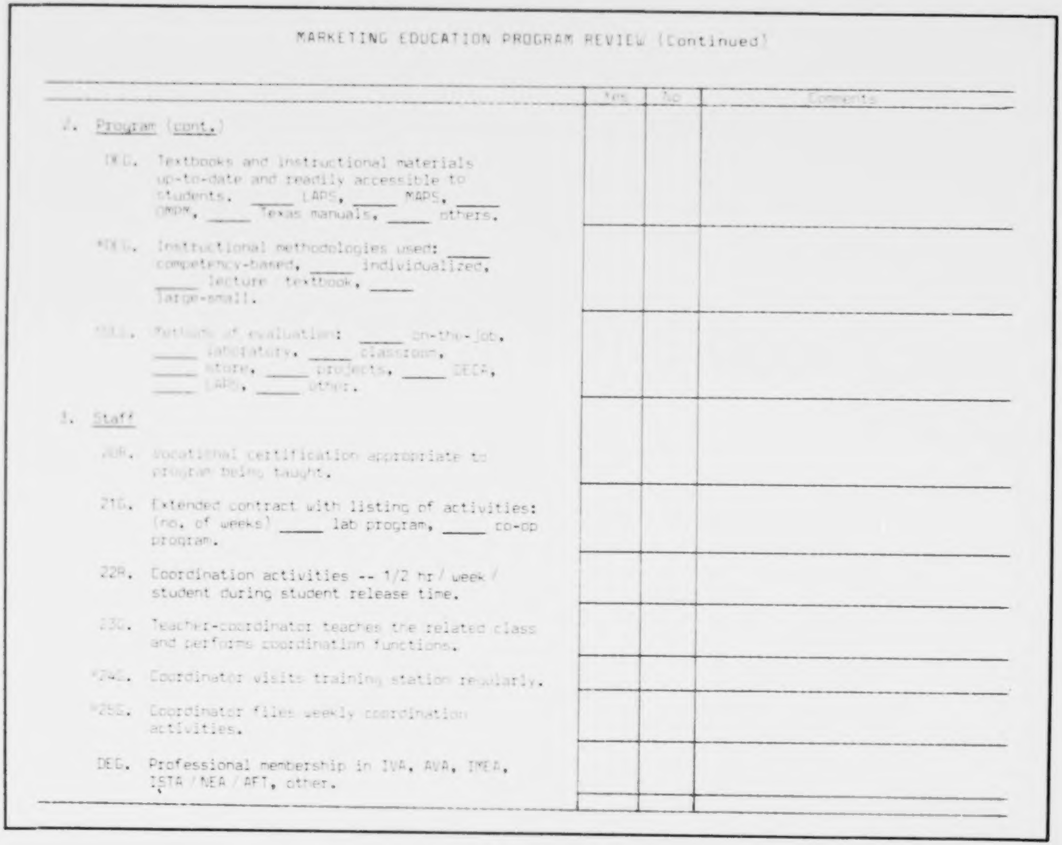
FIG. 21-6 (Continued)



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW (Continued)

	Yes	No	Comments
7. Program			
8R. Enrollment -- student-teacher ratio.			
9R. Safety taught -- classroom / training station.			
*10R. Written curriculum available.			
*11C. Curriculum written conceptually or objectives stated in terms observable / measurable and on file in the LEA.			
*12R. Program related to occupations as listed in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and in the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*.			
*13R. Career objectives on file in the LEA.			
*14R. Training agreement for each student on file with the coordinator -- signed.			
*15R. Training plan developed by coordinator and employer and on file with the coordinator.			
16R. Employment complies with all state and federal laws.			
17R. Related class -- 1 credit / semester in addition for on-the-job training.			
18R. Students given time during school schedule for on-the-job training.			
19R. Students employed not less than 15 hours / week.			

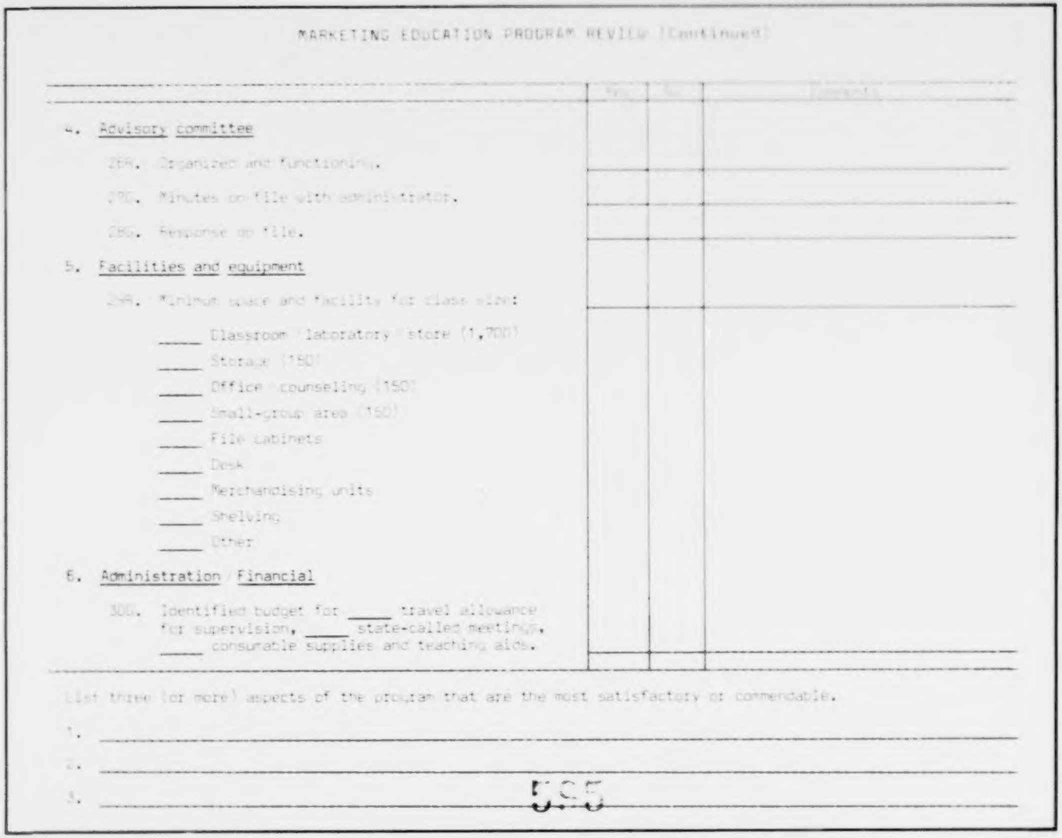
FIG. 21-6 (Continued)



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW (Continued)

	Yes	No	Comments
2. Program (cont.)			
17G. Textbooks and instructional materials up-to-date and readily accessible to students. _____ LAPS, _____ MAPS, _____ OMPM, _____ Texas manuals, _____ others.			
*18G. Instructional methodologies used: _____ competency-based, _____ individualized, _____ lecture / textbook, _____ large-small.			
*19G. Methods of evaluation: _____ on-the-job, _____ laboratory, _____ classroom, _____ store, _____ projects, _____ DECA, _____ LAPS, _____ other.			
3. Staff			
20R. Vocational certification appropriate to program being taught.			
21G. Extended contract with listing of activities: (no. of weeks) _____ lab program, _____ co-op program.			
22R. Coordination activities -- 1/2 hr / week / student during student release time.			
23G. Teacher-coordinator teaches the related class and performs coordination functions.			
*24G. Coordinator visits training station regularly.			
*25G. Coordinator files weekly coordination activities.			
DEG. Professional membership in IVA, AVA, IMEA, ISTA / NEA / AFT, other.			

FIG. 21-6 (Continued)



MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW (Continued)

	Yes	No	Comments
4. Advisory committee			
26A. Organized and functioning.			
27G. Minutes on file with administrator.			
28G. Response on file.			
5. Facilities and equipment			
29A. Minimum space and facility for class size:			
_____ Classroom/laboratory/store (1,700) _____ Storage (150) _____ Office/counseling (150) _____ Small-group area (150) _____ File cabinets _____ Desk _____ Merchandising units _____ Shelving _____ Other			
6. Administration/Financial			
30G. Identified budget for _____ travel allowance for supervision, _____ state-called meetings, _____ consumable supplies and teaching aids.			

List three (or more) aspects of the program that are the most satisfactory or commendable.

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________

FIG. 21-6 (Continued)

MARKETING EDUCATION PROGRAM REVIEW (Continued)

List three (or more) aspects of the program that need the most improvement.

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

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*Copies are to be made available for the consultant to review.

Source: Indiana Department of Education.

FIG. 21-6 (Continued)

How valuable is their background information and work experience in their academic work in college?

Does work experience aid them in defraying college expenses?

Teacher-Coordinator Qualifications

What changes, if any, should be made in the qualifications of the teacher-coordinator?

Does the coordinator have sufficient background and knowledge to handle adult education responsibilities as well as the secondary program?

Is the teacher-coordinator active in local civic and professional business groups?

Questions and Activities

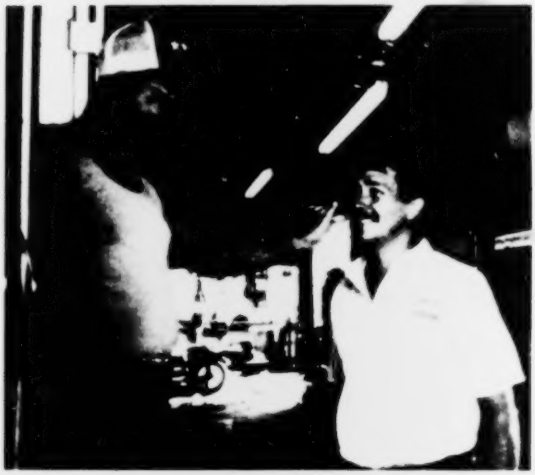
1. Prepare a 10-minute talk that you could give before a civic club or a professional group, explaining the secondary or post-secondary marketing education plan. Prepare charts or other visual aids for your talk. (Add the notes of this talk to your files.)
2. What are the minimum qualifications for becoming certified as a marketing education coordinator in a reimbursable program in your state?
3. How adequate is the list of specific topics for related instruction as suggested in this chapter? If you were the teacher-coordinator, which areas would you emphasize the most? Why?
4. If you were preparing a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing equipment and supplies for a marketing education classroom, what essentials would you request the first year? What would be some desirable items that you would put in your plan for purchase later on? (Add the notes of these ideas to your files.)
5. Analyze the learning outcomes that could be expected in a specific prospective training station in your local community. Determine the possibility of a student-learner's progress toward his/her career objective in this training station by the end of the year. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to proceed.)
6. How do DECA activities provide educational experiences for student-learners?
7. From examples you have studied, prepare a form that you could use in a local marketing education program for each of the following: a rating sheet on a student-learner at the training station and a weekly report form on which the student-learner could report his/her training station activities. (Add a copy of each of these to your files.)
8. Review published individual training manuals and report on these and other ways of providing individual instruction.
9. Prepare a brief evaluation of a local marketing education plan.
10. Explain what is meant by the "total program" approach in marketing education.
11. Prepare arguments pro and con on the topic "Specialized ME Cooperative Plans in an Area such as Food or Fashion Merchandising Have No Place in the High School."
12. Discuss the merits of the step-by-step training plan (or schedule of processes) in organizing a training station and the merits of the profile approach to evaluating a training station experience.

13. How might you, as a teacher-coordinator, participate in a local marketing education adult training and development program?
14. Study current references on classroom equipment and floor plans. Draw a room layout to scale (¼ inch equals 1 foot) and prepare an equipment list.
15. State the learning outcomes of a training plan in behavioral terms. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions.)

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

22

The Plan in Trade and Industrial Occupations



A training station where goods and services are technically related to a trade; it is advisable for the student-learner placed here to have industrial education background and interests.

KEY CONCEPT:

Trade and industrial occupations cut across many business, trade, and cooperative plan lines. After making a careful competency analysis of job requirements, considering the career objective of each student, and carefully developing a realistic step-by-step training plan for each student, the teacher-coordinator should be able to determine the proper plan of instruction and the proper occupational classification.

GOALS

After successfully completing the study of this chapter, answering the questions, and carrying out the activities, the student should be able to:

- Identify and list the major occupational clusters within the instructional area of trade and industrial occupations education.
- Identify and list appropriate training station and career objectives in trade and industrial occupations.
- Understand how to develop an appropriate curriculum for a local plan in cooperative occupational education for trade and industrial occupations education.
- List the major sources of instructional materials for trade and industrial occupations.
- Understand how to devise appropriate training plans for students at various training stations.
- Evaluate other student-learners in the classroom and on the job.
- Describe student-learner benefits gained from membership in VICA.

Trade, Industrial, and Technical Occupations

Trade and industrial education is a plan of instruction designed to prepare students for entry-level jobs in the various industrial–technical occupations and skilled trades. Apprenticeship programs are not considered as cooperative plans in the sense that the term is used in this text, although cooperative education in some states and local areas is accepted as part of the apprenticeship period by the local apprenticeship council.

This occupational preparation aids student-learners in acquiring general skills and knowledges applicable to all industrial occupations and also in acquiring specialized skills and knowledges applicable to a particular trade and to the training stations where they are placed. In addition, this background prepares student-learners for advancement on the job.

Some occupations in areas for which secondary students might train include: automotive repair, automotive technology, baking, bricklaying, carpentry, cabinet making, cleaning and pressing, drafting, electrical appliance servicing, electric motor repair, electrical wiring, farm machinery servicing, furniture upholstery, machine trades, meat cutting, painting and decorating, graphics, plumbing, printing, radio and television servicing, residential wiring, sheet-metal work, and welding.

Cooperative industrial education is one of the original forms of cooperative education in U.S. secondary schools. The provisions of the trade and industrial sections of the Smith-Hughes Act definitely established the character of the cooperative industrial education plan. The wide scope of the plan offers great flexibility. However, in some states and localities, unionization of shops and/or state and safety labor laws have made some occupations, in reality, closed to the placement of student-learners.

In general, the patterns in cooperative industrial education follow the three plans described in the preceding chapter for marketing education. The major difference is that student-learners are more likely to be farmed out to various industrial classes for at least one period of related instruction because of their needs for specialized content appropriate to an individual trade.

TYPICAL COOPERATIVE INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION PATTERNS

There are two basic types of cooperative industrial education plans. One is the ***single-trade plan***, in which all student-learners prepare for a given trade. For example, some large high schools or technical schools have cooperative drafting plans. However, most schools operate a second type of cooperative industrial education plan, one in which the student-learners represent a variety of trade and industrial occupations—draftspersons, automotive technicians, building trades workers, etc. In some states these plans are called ***diversified occupations plans*** because of the many different trades represented. Much confusion could be eliminated if the term "diversified occupations plans" always referred to plans involving a variety of all occupations rather than a variety of only industrial occupations.

The trade and industrial occupations plan is concerned with preparing individuals for gainful employment as semi-skilled or skilled workers, technicians, or sub-professionals in recognized industrial–technical occupations and in new or emerging occupations. The instructional programs may prepare persons for initial employment, for upgrading within an occupation, or for retraining when they have been displaced through technological advancement.

Related training for apprentices or journeymen already engaged in industrial–technical occupations is normally a function of the trade and industrial–technical program of vocational education. Also included may be instructional programs for those service and semi-professional occupations that are primarily trade and industrial in nature. Trade and industrial occupations are classified as either custom or service. Machinists, tool-and-die makers, cabinet workers, carpenters, and printers work in custom occupations. Automotive technicians, computer technicians, cosmetologists, and appliance repairers work in service occupations.

The cooperative plan of instruction has enabled industrial educators to offer vocational education in many occupations for which school laboratory instruction cannot be provided because of the high cost or the complexity of equipment necessary or because only a small number of students are interested in a given trade.

THE SCOPE OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

The trade and industrial CIP Codes 46.00 to 48.00 include the following clusters of occupations.[1]

46. Construction Trades
    46.01 Brickmasonry, Stonemasonry, and Tile Setting
    46.02 Carpentry

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[1] *A Classification of Instructional Programs*, Vocational–Technical Education Programs, National Center for Education Statistics, Presidential Building, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202, p. 31. Consult your state department of vocational education for a more detailed list.

46.03 Electrical and Power Transmission Installation
46.04 Miscellaneous Construction Trades
46.05 Plumbing, Pipefitting, and Steamfitting
46.99 Construction Trades, Other

47. Mechanics and Repairers
47.01 Electrical and Electronics Equipment Repair, General
47.02 Heating, Air Conditioning, and Refrigeration Mechanics
47.03 Industrial Equipment Maintenance and Repair
47.04 Miscellaneous Mechanics and Repairers
47.05 Stationary Energy Sources
47.06 Vehicle and Mobile Equipment Mechanics and Repairers
47.99 Mechanics and Repairers, Other

48. Precision Production
48.01 Drafting
48.02 Graphic Printing Communications
48.03 Leatherworking and Upholstering
48.04 Precision Food Production
48.05 Precision Metal Work
48.06 Precision Work, Assorted Materials
48.07 Woodworking
48.09 Precision Products

THE FUNCTIONS APPROACH TO TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL–TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS

A useful way for educators to determine the occupations for which the cooperative industrial education plan (either pattern) is suitable is the "functions approach." This line of reasoning and analysis is useful also in determining the content of related instruction in school and the needed experiences on the job. As discussed above, the functions approach to industrial education is based on the existence of common elements in each of two major branches of industry—***goods-producing***, or custom, and ***goods-servicing***.[2] These functions are described as follows:

1. Goods-producing activities of industrial products
    a. Research
    b. Product development
    c. Planning for production
    d. Manufacturing
        (1) Custom, or unit
        (2) Mass production, or continuous
2. Goods-servicing activities of industrial products
    a. Diagnosis
    b. Correction
        (1) Adjustment
        (2) Replacement
        (3) Repair
    c. Testing

The following list of descriptive titles of occupations that may appear in local cooperative industrial training plans illustrates that while some of the occupations are goods-producing, most of them are goods-servicing because of the nature of the tasks performed and because of the need for more service occupations and fewer custom occupations.

Air conditioning and refrigeration mechanic
Airplane mechanic
Appliance mechanic
Auto body and fender mechanic
Auto mechanic
Beautician
Brick and stone mason
Building construction mechanic
Cabinet maker
Carpenter
Cement mason
Commercial artist
Diesel mechanic
Drafter
Dry cleaning and pressing specialist
Electrician
    Communications
    Maintenance
    Wiring
Floor layer
Foundry worker
Instrument repairer
Custodian
Jeweler and watchmaker
Maintenance and service worker
Needle trades worker
Operating engineer
Optical and lens specialist
Ornamental iron worker
Painter and paper hanger
Patternmaker

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[2] William M. Bateson and Jacob Stern, "The Functions of Industry as the Basis for Industrial Education Programs," *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education*, Vol. 1, Fall 1963, p. 7.

Photodeveloper and engraver
Plumber and pipefitter
Printer
Repairer, general
Repairer, radio and television
Upholsterer
Welding specialist, arc
Welding specialist, combination

Technicians

Automotive technician
Chemical technician
Dental hygienist
Electronics technician
Highway engineering aide
Inspector, production
Laboratory assistant
Medical assistant
Plastics technician

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN APPRENTICESHIP PROGRAMS AND COOPERATIVE INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION PLANS

The apprenticeship approach to industrial training dates back to the early guilds of the Middle Ages. Still much used as a means of providing skilled-trades training, it involves considerable on-the-job experience, coupled with a limited amount of classroom theory instruction.

Are apprenticeship programs and cooperative industrial education programs the same, and, if not, is there a relationship between them? Apprenticeship programs are typically for youth who have left or graduated from the full-time school. They involve full-time employment, plus some related instruction in school for a few hours a week. They are contracts—apprenticeship agreements between employers, unions, and local apprenticeship councils. These contracts are for definite periods of time, usually not less than three years and, in some cases, as many as six or seven years.

The apprenticeship system in the skilled trades is one with an old and honorable history. In a sense, apprenticeship is the original "cooperative plan," since it involves (1) cooperative agreements between the employers and the school and (2) instruction both on the job and in school. On the other hand, there are some real differences between apprenticeship and cooperative education. Cooperative industrial education is generally of much shorter duration, usually no more than two years, and it prepares the students for entry-level jobs. The student-learners in a cooperative plan are students who work part time and go to school part time, while apprentices work full time. The related instruction in school in the cooperative plan involves more hours than for the apprenticeship program. The students continue their general education, which is not part of the apprenticeship program. Apprenticeship is intended to prepare persons to qualify as journeymen upon completion of training.

The question of whether there is a relationship between apprenticeship programs and cooperative plans is one that cannot be answered categorically yes or no. In some states and in some local school districts, apprenticeship councils have approved the policy of giving student-learners credit for their cooperative experience toward their apprenticeship period. In some cases, year-by-year equivalency is allowed; in other cases, the cooperative years are counted only as half-years. In some areas of the country, cooperative student-learners are approved by the apprenticeship councils when they first become cooperative students; in other cases, the students are not accepted as apprentices until they finish their cooperative plans. In still other states, there is no relationship whatsoever between a cooperative plan and an apprenticeship program.

DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN OCCUPATIONS THAT HAVE INDUSTRIAL COMPETENCIES

When classifying a given training station or a given training situation, the local coordinator (or coordinators in areas having more than one cooperative plan) is often faced with the problem of determining where the line falls between trade and industrial, marketing, business, health, and home economics occupations. After making a careful competency analysis of the job requirements, considering the ***career objective*** of the student, and carefully developing a realistic step-by-step training plan, the coordinator will determine the proper classification. Usually, determining what related instruction content will contribute most to the majority of the learning experiences of a given student-learner will not be difficult. For example, if students, for the most part, need instruction in retailing, merchandising, and management, they are best classified as marketing education students, for the content of general related and specific instruction can best be taught by a marketing education teacher, who has the professional and technical background in these areas. If students need instruction in office skills, knowledges, and understandings, including the operation of data and word processing equipment, then most certainly the related instruction and the coordination can best be handled by the business education coordinator. If students need instruction in industrial skills, knowledges, and understandings, such as would be found in technical laboratories, building trades, repair trades, and the technical service and repair of data processing and word processing equipment, then the related instruction and coordination can best be handled by the industrial coordinator, who has this professional and technical background. In many cases, students may need skills in all major content areas.

CURRICULUM

Cooperative industrial education plans at the secondary level commonly follow the half-day school and half-day work principle found in cooperative plans in other vocational areas. However, the nature of the trades or the occupations involved in the plans gives rise to some variations in how the plans are organized.

In the single-trade pattern, such as drafting, the related class is usually one period, and the student-learners are likely to be enrolled in at least one other related industrial subject. Also, the learners may be required to have completed prerequisite courses, such as shop math and general science, and beginning industrial education courses, such as Drafting I and II. Thus, this type of plan is similar to the cooperative office plan when it is the capstone of a curriculum. Such plans may be for one year or two years; more commonly, they are for one year, except in vocational high schools or area vocational schools.

In the diversified industrial occupations plan, the two-year pattern with one hour daily of directly related instruction each year is the most common. In this plan, many of the students will not have completed any industrial courses. Such plans, then, are similar to many cooperative marketing education plans of the past in which the cooperative plans were the real beginning of the students' vocational instruction. Some cooperative industrial occupations plans operate for one year only with two periods of related instruction to meet the needs of students who have made late career choices just before their senior year.

It is not possible to prescribe an exact curriculum pattern that will meet all the experiences needed in cooperative industrial education. However, a general picture can be presented.

In the large high school, where there is an adequate number of students in each of three categories (Option 1, Option 2, and Option 3), three possible plans of pre-employment education for industrial occupations might be considered. (See Table 22-1.)

The alternative sequences shown in Table 22-1 indicate the possibility of handling the very slow achievers in a program differently from the usual cooperative industrial training plan represented by the middle sequence shown for the average achievers. It is conceivable that a few of the slow achievers would be ready to enter the regular cooperative plan by the beginning of the eleventh year after remedial work on fundamental industrial processes and development of basic skills—reading, writing, and computation—as applied to industrial trades.

TABLE 22-1

Grade Level and Industrial Occupations Pre-employment Education Plans

Grade Level	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3
12	Continues on supervised work experience and may transfer to the regular cooperative plan. The 1984 legislation continues impetus for plans for individuals who are disadvantaged.	Cooperative industrial training[1] composed of one period of related instruction (two if a senior-year program only), 450 hours on the job (15 hours' minimum per week for 30 weeks)	Cooperative industrial training or cooperative electronics[2]
11	"How to work" — 6 months' to 2 years' supervised work experience with variable credit	Cooperative industrial training composed of one period of related instruction and 450 hours on the job	Mathematics Science Cooperative industrial training
10	Industrial arts: Survey of occupations Remedial work	Selects two supplementary courses in industrial arts, *e.g.*, electricity for electronics	Selects two supplementary courses in industrial arts, *e.g.*, electricity for electronics.
9	Grooming and personal development Remedial arithmetic Remedial writing Remedial reading	In a general shop: Woods, 6 weeks Electricity, 6 weeks Drawing, 6 weeks Graphic arts, 6 weeks Metals, 6 weeks Power mechanics, 6 weeks	In a general shop: Woods, 6 weeks Electricity, 6 weeks Drawing, 6 weeks Graphic arts, 6 weeks Metals, 6 weeks Power mechanics, 6 weeks

[1] Large schools might provide cooperative industrial education through homogeneous groups according to craft, *e.g.*, cooperative drafting, cooperative sheet metal, cooperative electronics.

[2] Typically, these electronics students would be taking science and math courses to enable them to begin work at a higher level, or while they are working, to enter a post-secondary technical curriculum.

RELATED INSTRUCTION

Although this text has emphasized that many administrative elements of the cooperative plan of instruction are common to all programs, regardless of the occupations represented, the instructional function is quite unique to each field. In the cooperative industrial education plan, this difference is due to (1) the nature of the competencies that are required in the various occupations, (2) the types of competencies that can be developed in school for various occupations, and (3) the variety of different types of occupations that are represented.

The nature of related instruction in cooperative industrial education.—In cooperative industrial education, the job is the place where many technical (manipulative) skills are to be learned. This is because of the highly specialized equipment that is required and the difficulty of simulating an industrial job in the classroom. The actual on-the-job experience provides a monetary incentive and the realization that a student's efforts are vital in the production or service that the school environment doesn't provide. The classroom instruction in school must teach the technical information related to the trade, as well as the general information required of all workers.[3] In cooperative industrial education, this is the teacher-coordinator's major classroom function. Therefore, the related class must have many reference materials on technical information. The teacher-coordinator organizes the technical material, and the student-learners meet daily for one period for the purpose of assimilating the information. It is at this point that the teacher-coordinator assumes the task of guiding and directing the individualized study of each student-learner. Individualized instruction is a must.

Another aspect of instruction in cooperative industrial education is the diversity of trades that are represented. If all students represent one trade such as drafting, then the related instruction can proceed on a group basis.[4] If the students represent a variety of trades, then the related instruction in technical information obviously must be given on an individual study basis. On the other hand, each student-learner can be enrolled in a class that provides supplementary vocational instruction for the student-learner's trade area. In that class, such as machine trades, building construction, or electronics, the student-learner would be enrolled with non-cooperative trainees, and the class would probably be a laboratory where manipulative skills are taught.[5]

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[3] Contrast this with the business plan in which core knowledges and manipulative skills are taught in school and applied on the job, or with the marketing area in which manipulative skills are a small part of the occupation but in which human relations skills and marketing concepts are very important.

[4] In this case, the single-trade industrial plan is similar to the business or marketing plan, in which the various business or marketing occupations all have a common body of content as their core.

Thus, the general principles of instruction of cooperative industrial education are that (1) in-school instruction stresses technical information rather than skills, and (2) instruction becomes primarily individual rather than group where diversity of occupations exists.

OBJECTIVES OF RELATED INSTRUCTION

There are three areas of instructional objectives in cooperative industrial education.

The ***first area of objectives*** describes the information, concepts, and attitudes that are basic to all industrial occupations and that the student-learners use to advance successfully toward their career objectives. These instructional objectives are taught primarily through group instruction. This is known as general related instruction (the topics are shown later in this chapter).

The ***second area of objectives*** emphasizes the student-learners' building of occupational skills and knowledges applicable to the particular initial jobs in which they are placed. Each student's individual learning outcomes are stated in the training plan outline, which indicates the work processes in which the student-learner will be trained.[6] These learning outcomes are stressed in the informal individual conferences of student-learner and teacher-coordinator and/or the training station sponsor.

The ***third area of objectives*** deals with the improvement of the students' general education as it relates to the job. The teacher-coordinator should certainly contribute to the improvement of each student's ability to read, write, compute, and communicate.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS, MATERIALS, AND FACILITIES

The instructional methods in cooperative industrial education plans involve two types of instruction necessary for developing vocational competence. These are ***general related instruction*** and ***specific related instruction***.

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[5] In this case, the plan would be similar to some cooperative business plans, in which student-learners would be enrolled one period in a supplemental skills course, such as advanced shorthand and transcription.

[6] In single-trade programs, some of these objectives are accomplished by in-school instruction through group study, since all student-learners have common needs because they are in the same trade.

General related instruction.[7]—The term "general related instruction" is applied to instruction in topics considered of common importance to workers in industrial occupations.[8] In some cooperative industrial education plans, one period per day from the two-hour block is devoted to such instruction. Group instruction methods, with emphasis upon readings, lectures, and discusssions, are appropriate for general related instruction, which is primarily conceptual and attitudinal in nature.

While the topics in the general related class may vary from program to program, the following topics are some common ones.

Units of Study

- School and Industrial Relations
  - The Industrial Cooperative Training Plan
  - What Makes a Good Trainee?
  - School Rules and Regulations
  - Responsibilities of the Student-Learner
  - Grooming and Dressing for the Job
  - Choosing a Means of Earning a Living
  - Getting a Job and Growing in It
  - Job Versus Training Station
  - Employer-Employee Relations
  - Paying for Services Through Taxes
  - Private Insurance Plans
  - Social Security
  - Legal Regulations for Young Workers
  - Labor Unions
  - Wage and Hour Records
  - Filing Your Income Tax Report
  - Safety
  - Career Opportunities in Industry

Recurring Topics

- Personal Development
  - Understanding Ourselves
  - Keeping Out of Trouble
  - Character and Personality
  - Successful Job Relations
  - Practice of Manners
  - Effective Study Habits
  - Budgeting Your Income
  - Saving and Investing
  - Credit and Money Management
  - Understanding Contracts
  - Consumer Legal Problems
  - Using Negotiable Instruments
  - Planning Your Career
- Human Relations
  - Understanding Others
  - Courtesy to Others
  - Cooperation
- Student Organization Activities
  - Aims and Purposes
  - *Robert's Rules of Order*
  - Making a Speech
  - Learning Opportunities
  - Recreational Opportunities

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[7] Some trade and industrial educators call this "guidance related instruction."

[8] Many state departments have developed guides and course outlines for general related instruction. Contact the state department or a teacher-educator in your state for some suggestions.

Specific related instruction.—The term "specific related instruction" is used to denote instruction given to students in the related class in the technical information requisite to their trades. At least half of the time available for related instruction should be devoted to these needs. Whereas general topics of value to all class members may be handled through group instruction, the technical requirements of the numerous industrial occupations must be handled through individual instruction. The technical requirements of the various trades and occupations differ. The rate and extent of learning vary considerably among student-learners. To be effective, technical instruction in cooperative industrial education must be individualized, and student-learners must accept the responsibility for applying themselves, with the guidance of their teachers.

Individual instruction or supervised study.—The most frequently used vehicles of individual study in the cooperative industrial education plan are the job manual, the student notebook in which the student plans and studies for occupational growth, a technical manual from a manufacturer, a technical manual or guide prepared for a specific occupation (sometimes prepared by committees of supervisors and teacher-coordinators), an apprenticeship manual, a trade magazine, and one or more textbooks.

Job-study guides are available for a considerable number of occupations. Coordinators should contact their state departments or their teacher-education institutions for a list of guides and their sources. The guides contain not only study questions but also suggested references and occasionally test questions. Some coordinators have been experimenting with the use of correspondence courses. However, their use is so limited that no firm recommendation can be made with regard to their effectiveness.

SPECIAL LABORATORIES AND CLASSROOMS

The classroom for related instruction for the cooperative industrial education plan is usually a regular classroom if a single-trade cooperative plan is involved. Whenever a diversified-trades plan is involved, a classroom suited to both group instruction and individual instruction is desirable.

Movable tables might well be arranged in a "U" shape, with chairs outside the "U." Chalkboard space, bulletin board space, reference library shelves, magazine racks, and filing cabinets are important, as are an audiotape recorder, a tape-slide projector, a videocassette, and a computer terminal (see Figures 22-1 and 22-2). A conference room available for individual student-coordinator conferences is an important feature of the cooperative industrial education classroom. This provides privacy for discussing personal

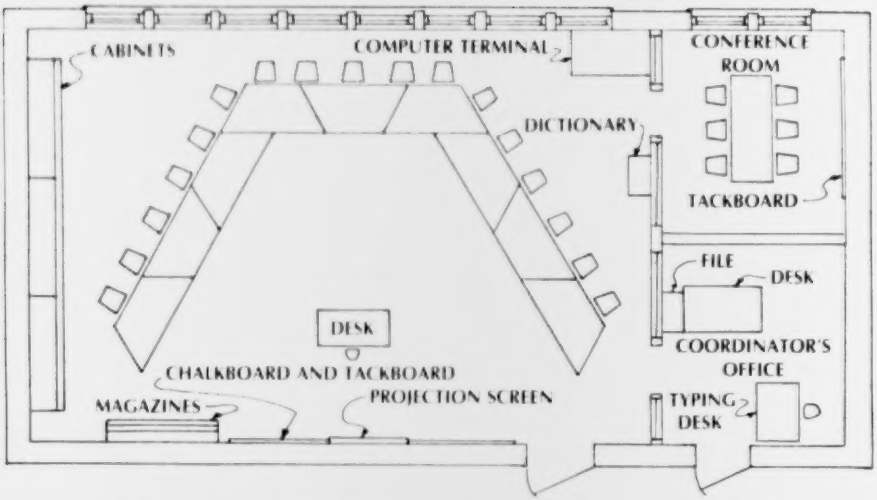
CABINETS
COMPUTER TERMINAL
CONFERENCE ROOM
DICTIONARY
TACKBOARD
FILE
DESK
DESK
COORDINATOR'S OFFICE
CHALKBOARD AND TACKBOARD
MAGAZINES
PROJECTION SCREEN
TYPING DESK

FIG. 22-1. Floor plan for a cooperative industrial education related instruction room with conference area and coordinator's office.

problems or problems encountered at the training station. Glass partitions or large glass windows in the conference room allow the activities going on in the classroom to be in full view of the teacher-coordinator, who is participating in an individual conference.

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

By writing to the following sources, identifying their specific needs for instructional materials for related class instruction in cooperative industrial education, teacher-coordinators can obtain titles, descriptions, and price lists of textbooks, manuals, and audio-visual aids. These are only a few of the many possible sources. The January–February issue of the *Vocational Education Journal (Buyer's Guide)* contains many other suggestions.

Instructional Materials Center
Division of Extension
LCG 305
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78712

Instructional Materials
Laboratory
10 Industrial Education Building
University of
Missouri–Columbia
Columbia, MO 65211

Webster Division
Mc-Graw-Hill Book Co.
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

American Technical Society
848 East 58th Street
Chicago, IL 60637

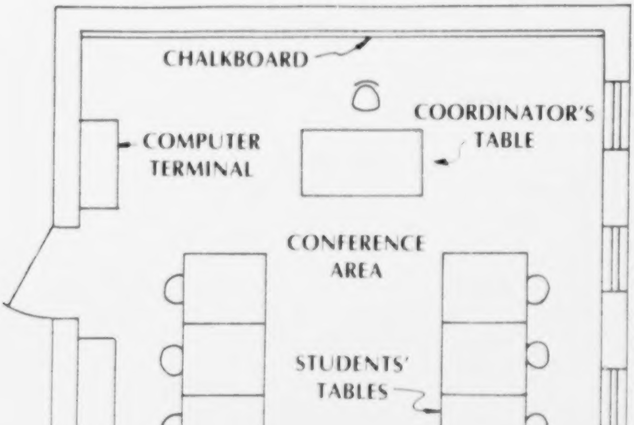
CHALKBOARD
COMPUTER TERMINAL
COORDINATOR'S TABLE
CONFERENCE AREA
STUDENTS' TABLES
BULLETIN BOARD
REFERENCE BOOK SHELVES UNDER BULLETIN BOARD
TYPING DESK
CONFERENCE ROOM
MAGAZINE RACK
DESK
WORKBOOK CABINET
TELEPHONE
FILING CABINET

FIG. 22-2. Another floor plan for a cooperative industrial education related instruction room with conference area.

Division of Industrial Education
Curriculum and Instructional
Materials Center
The Ohio State University
842 West Goodale Avenue
Columbus, OH 43212

Department of Trade and
Industry
University of Alabama
University, AL 35486

Curriculum and
Instructional Materials
Center
Oklahoma State
Department of
Vocational and
Technical Education
1500 West Seventh Street
Stillwater, OK 74074

Secondary Division
Prentice-Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, NJ
07632

Delmar Publishers, Inc.
2 Computer Drive, West
Albany, NY 12212

Teacher-coordinators should always be looking for materials that they can get free, such as those donated by local employers and associations. If school policy permits, it may be wise to ask student-learners to purchase some manuals of their trade, just as they would buy tools and safety shoes. This is a prudent investment of some of the money they earn.

STUDENT ORGANIZATION

The industrial education student organization (VICA) is the third dimension of the cooperative education plan. It is an integral part of the total instructional program, including the related classroom and the training station. (Refer to Chapter 14 for suggestions on how students can benefit from participation in a local industrial education student organization chapter.)

The student organization is a good place to stress *Robert's Rules of Order*, neat appearance and appropriate dress, social etiquette, and successful completion of individual and group projects.

If the number of student-learners warrants it, a special chapter for cooperative industrial education students might be appropriate.

SECURING DESIRED LEARNING ON THE JOB

The needs of each industrial student-learner for instruction in his/her chosen trade requires that the teacher-coordinator determine what the specific learnings need to be for each student. The technique that accomplishes this is the development of a ***training plan***.

For each individual student-learner, there *must* be a training plan showing what is to be learned on the job. This plan has to be worked out by the teacher-coordinator in cooperation with the employer. This plan will be in the

CASE-IN-POINT

VICA "Turns On" Bud Wilcox

Bud Wilcox, who is a cooperative industrial training student-learner, is taking his on-the-job training at All-Tran Transmission Service. All-Tran repairs or rebuilds all makes of transmissions. Bud is doing well at his training station and is interested in the related instruction in the classroom. He shows potential for working his way into management and supervisory responsibilities after graduation. However, he is hesitant about expressing himself verbally—a skill he will need to develop if he wants to manage or supervise.

Bud's teacher-coordinator decides to search for ways to give Bud experience in expressing himself. He helps Bud to plan a short five-minute presentation about his training station to share with the other classmates in the related class. Bud's presentation goes well and he enjoys it.

Through encouragement from the teacher-coordinator, the VICA president appoints Bud to appear with him before the advisory committee to help explain the cooperative plan and its accomplishments. The president talks about VICA; Bud explains his training station experience; and the teacher-coordinator tells about classroom instruction. Bud and the president wear their special jackets—those bearing the VICA emblem. All goes well. Both students exhibit pride in VICA, and the advisory committee members are impressed.

The local TV station provides free time for VICA representatives to explain the cooperative plan, and Bud participates. He is now an enthusiastic promoter of VICA and the cooperative plan and does not hesitate to talk about them to others. VICA served as a good vehicle to give Bud verbal experiences.

form of a job analysis of the phases of the occupation that the student-learner is expecting to learn.

Training will be given in many occupations with which the coordinator cannot be familiar and about which assistance will have to be sought. In most instances, a craft or advisory committee can help. This committee may consist of the employer or supervisor and an employee in the establisment, or it may consist of people engaged in the occupation outside the educational agency. The employer should be encouraged to have a hand in developing the training plan.

This training plan may be worked out in any one of a number of forms, but the three-column variety will probably be found the most usable and convenient. The first, or left-hand column contains a listing by units of the manipulative skills to be learned on the job, while the related information that correlates with these job units appears in the second column. In the third column are references to specific books, magazines, etc., which indicate exactly where the desired related information can be found.

When the training plan is completed, it becomes a part of the training agreement. Training plans are discussed below, and examples are shown in Figures 22-3 and 22-4.

When a schedule of processes or other job analysis has been worked out for each student-learner, the teacher-coordinator still faces the problems of learning to guide each student's individual study, making necessary instructional materials available, and developing a classroom suitable for individual study.[9]

Using the step-by-step training plan.—As in other cooperative education plans, the step-by-step training plan (schedule of processes) should make the cooperative industrial training plan sharply distinctive from general work experience plans.

This plan indicates the specific vocational objectives to be emphasized as well as the place where they are to be learned—school or job—and from whom they are to be learned—related instruction teacher or job sponsor. Figure 22-3 illustrates the areas of experience and training section of a step-by-step training plan for a training station in automotive technology. The plan is attached to the training agreement to make up a complete training plan. A teacher-coordinator may have the student-learner record these areas of experience and training on an analysis and progress chart. Figure 22-4 illustrates a part of an analysis and progress chart for an auto mechanic trainee. This chart

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[9] Training stations and training plans can be developed for a wide range of student-learners, from slow achievers to fast achievers. Competency-based SSLO, described in Chapter 11, can be selected each evaluation period, suitable to the learning abilities of the individual student-learner.

LEARNING OUTCOMES* FOR A STUDENT-LEARNER WITH CAREER
OBJECTIVE OF AUTOMOBILE MECHANIC, 5-81.010

Expected Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
1. Orientation to automobile mechanics		
a. To learn about the nature of the automobile repair business.	x	x
b. To gain an overview of automobile design.	x	x
c. To gain an appreciation of automobile repair hand tools.	x	x
d. To learn shop hazards and safe practices.	x	x
2. Competencies related to the engine parts		
a. To learn the physical principles involved.	x	
b. To learn to clean and repair the motor.		x
3. Competencies related to the fuel system		
a. To learn the principles involved in fuel system operation.	x	x
b. To learn to clean and repair the fuel system.		x
4. Engine lubrication		
a. To learn the principles of lubrication.	x	
b. To learn the procedures for necessary complete lubrication.		x
5. Cooling system		
a. To learn the principles used in the cooling system.	x	
b. To learn the procedures necessary for complete lubrication.		x
6. Electrical system		
a. To learn the principles involved in the operation of the electrical system.	x	
b. To learn to maintain and repair the system.		x
7. The clutch		
a. To learn how the clutch operates.	x	x
b. To learn to maintain and repair the clutch.		x
8. The transmission		
a. To learn how manual and automatic transmissions operate.	x	x
b. To learn to maintain and repair transmissions.		x
9. Propeller shafts and universal joints		
a. To learn to check, remove, repair, and replace universals.		x
b. To learn to check, remove, repair, and install the slip joint.		x

FIG. 22-3

LEARNING OUTCOMES* (Continued)

Expected Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
10. Rear axle and differential		
a. To learn to remove, adjust, and replace axle shaft and bearings.		x
b. To learn to remove, repair, and replace the differential assembly.		x
11. Front axles and steering gear		
a. To learn to make preliminary wheel alignment check.	x	x
b. To learn to adjust steering and balance wheels.		x
12. Springs and shock absorbers		
a. To learn to check, remove, repair, and replace springs.	x	x
b. To learn to check, adjust, remove, and replace shock absorbers.		x
13. Brakes		
a. To learn to make minor brake adjustments.	x	x
b. To learn to check and repair brakes.		x
c. To learn to test, maintain, and repair hydraulic systems.	x	x
14. Tires		
a. To learn to remove, repair, and remount tires.	x	x
15. General lubrication		
a. To learn the principles involved in the lubrication system.	x	x
b. To learn how to perform a complete lubrication job.		x
16. Automobile repair business management		
a. To learn the fundamental problems of organizing the business.	x	x
b. To learn the fundamental problems of staffing.	x	x
c. To learn the fundamental problems of controlling the budget, financing, and maintaining proper inventory.	x	x

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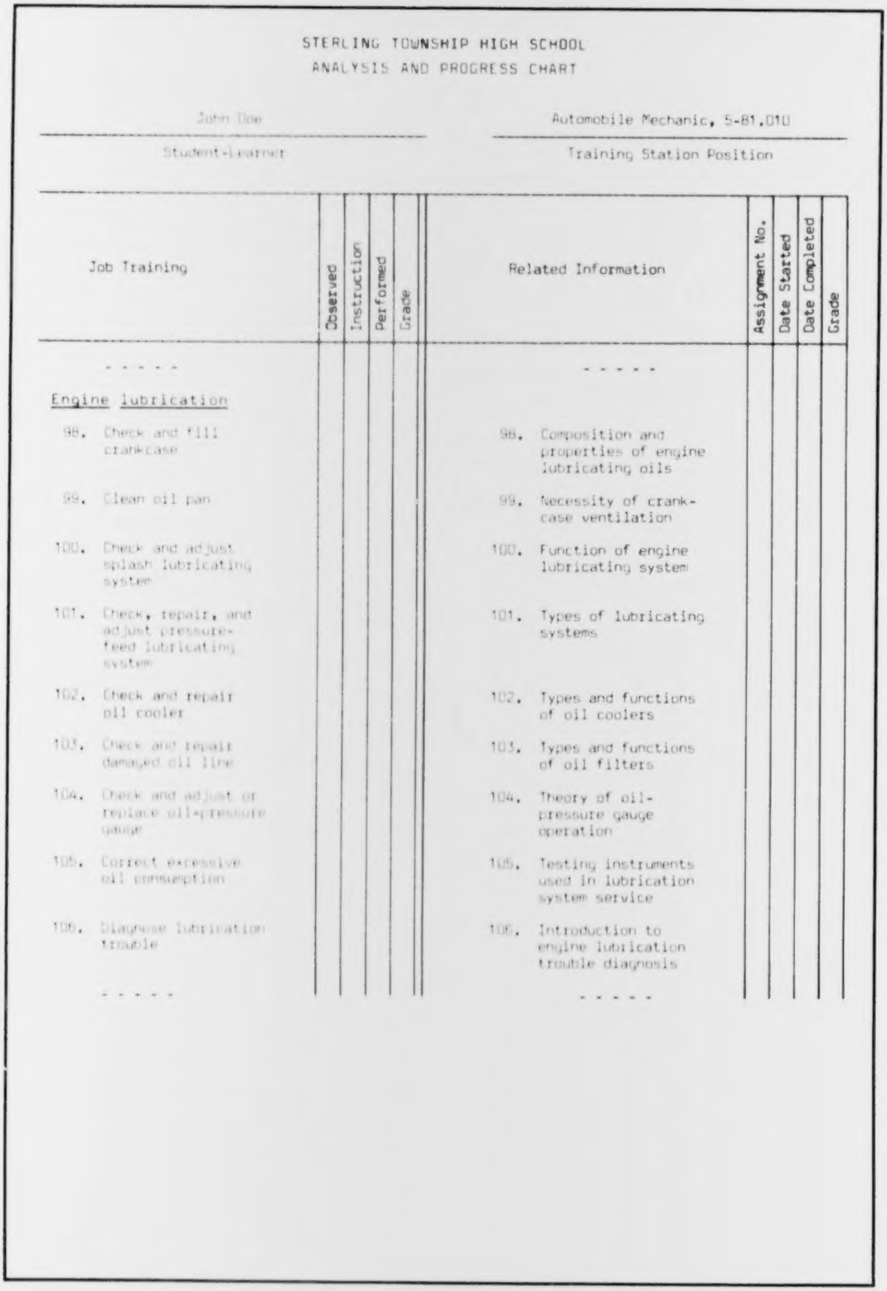
*The learning outcomes could be stated in behavioral terms. For example, number 3 could be stated as follows:

a. To be able to apply the principles involved in the fuel system operation.
b. To be able to clean and repair the fuel system.

FIG. 22-3 (Continued)



STERLING TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL
ANALYSIS AND PROGRESS CHART

John Doe	Automobile Mechanic, 5-81.010
Student-Learner	Training Station Position

Job Training	Observed	Instruction	Performed	Grade	Related Information	Assignment No.	Date Started	Date Completed	Grade
- - - - -					- - - - -				
Engine lubrication									
98. Check and fill crankcase					98. Composition and properties of engine lubricating oils				
99. Clean oil pan					99. Necessity of crank-case ventilation				
100. Check and adjust splash lubricating system					100. Function of engine lubricating system				
101. Check, repair, and adjust pressure-feed lubricating system					101. Types of lubricating systems				
102. Check and repair oil cooler					102. Types and functions of oil coolers				
103. Check and repair damaged oil line					103. Types and functions of oil filters				
104. Check and adjust or replace oil-pressure gauge					104. Theory of oil-pressure gauge operation				
105. Correct excessive oil consumption					105. Testing instruments used in lubrication system service				
106. Diagnose lubrication trouble					106. Introduction to engine lubrication trouble diagnosis				
- - - - -					- - - - -				

FIG. 22-4

provides a record of the instruction and the performance. Figure 22-5 outlines a training plan for a drafter. This plan is shown in some detail. The detail of the breakdown and the comprehensiveness or completeness of the training plan will depend upon the opportunities offered at the training station and the ability of the student-learner to benefit from the training.

MEASURING STUDENT-LEARNERS' GROWTH

In the final analysis, measurement of the student-learners' growth and development at the end of the school year will determine the extent to which career objectives have been reached. The objectives of the teacher-coordinator of a cooperative industrial training plan will have included the following:

1. Increasing the skills of the individual student-learners to perform successfully in the entry position.
2. Helping student-learners to develop an understanding for and an appreciation of the fundamentals of technology and the basic management principles that will enable them to grow and to be successful in a family of related occupations.
3. Acquainting the young workers with sources of additional information and skills development to enable them to progress in their chosen occupations.
4. Laying groundwork of aesthetic and moral values that will support what the students have learned previously under other secondary teachers to enable them to assume whatever leadership role in industry they are capable of pursuing.

Student measurement takes the form of evaluated projects that have become progressively more difficult and revealing, such as performance tests during class time and on the job; written tests on classwork and on individual study in the classroom and on the job; ratings of job growth by the job sponsor; and growth revealed by participation in student activities, including the student organization.

Positive growth in several or all of the areas mentioned can be measured by criteria such as the following:

1. The student-learners have attained an acceptable or better level of technical background and have developed adequate skills to perform in their chosen trade.
2. The student-learners can use resource manuals and training manuals in their chosen trades.

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN

DRAFTER

A. Title of Job: Drafter (a two-year program)

B. Job Description: Prepares clear, complete, and accurate working plans and detailed drawings from rough or detailed sketches or notes for engineering or manufacturing purposes according to specified dimensions; makes final sketch of the proposed drawing, checking dimension of parts, materials to be used, the relation of one part to another, and the relation of the various parts to the whole structure; inks in all lines and letters on pencil drawings; makes charts for representation of statistical data; makes designs from sketches.

C. Career Objective: Drafter

D. Areas of Training and Experience:

1. Instruments and Equipment
2. Applied Geometry
3. Freehand Lettering and Sketching
4. Orthographic Projection
5. Dimensions
6. Sectional and Auxiliary Views
7. Working Drawings
8. Screw Threads, Gears, Welding
9. Pictorial Drawings
10. Piping Drawings and Schematics
11. Development Drawing
12. Revolution and Rotation
13. Architectural Drawing
14. Structural Drafting
15. Topographic Map Drawing
16. Reproduction of Drawings

E. Detail of Areas of Training and Experience:

Planned Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
1. Using instruments and equipment		
a. Learns types and uses of drafting instruments.	x	
b. Selects instruments and equipment.	x	x
c. Uses tracing paper and cloth.	x	
d. Cleans and adjusts drafting equipment.		x
e. Sharpens drafting pencils.		x
f. Sharpens compass leads.		x
g. Places and fastens drawing paper.		x
h. Draws horizontal lines.		x
i. Draws vertical lines.	x	x
j. Scribes circles.	x	
k. Understands inclined lines and the use of triangle.	x	x
l. Erases lines.	x	x
m. Draws lines to scale.	x	x
n. Draws irregular curves.	x	x
o. Uses inking equipment.	x	x

FIG. 22-5

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Planned Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
2. Learning applied geometry		
a. Bisects straight lines.	x	x
b. Bisects angles.		x
c. Bisects arcs.		x
d. Divides a straight line into a given number of equal parts.	x	x
e. Constructs regular pentagons.	x	x
f. Constructs hexagons.	x	x
g. Constructs polygons.	x	x
h. Draws ellipses.	x	x
i. Locates the center of a circle through three given points.		x
j. Draws lines tangent to given circles.		x
3. Learning freehand lettering and sketching		
a. Letters freehand.	x	x
b. Sketches freehand.	x	x
c. Learns isometric sketching.	x	
4. Learning orthographic projection		
a. Pencils a drawing.	x	x
b. Prepares three-view orthographic drawings.	x	x
c. Learns orthographic reading.	x	
d. Practices orthographic projection.	x	
e. Lays out title blocks.	x	x
5. Learning dimensions		
a. Makes arrowheads.	x	x
b. Places dimensions.		x
c. Learns material symbols (section).	x	
d. Learns shop terms.	x	
e. Learns manufacturing precision.	x	
f. Learns precision and tolerance.	x	
g. Learns American Standard Association Classification of Fits.	x	
h. Checks drawings.	x	x
6. Learning sectional and auxiliary views		
a. Makes full-section drawings.	x	x
b. Makes half-section views.		x

FIG. 22-5 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

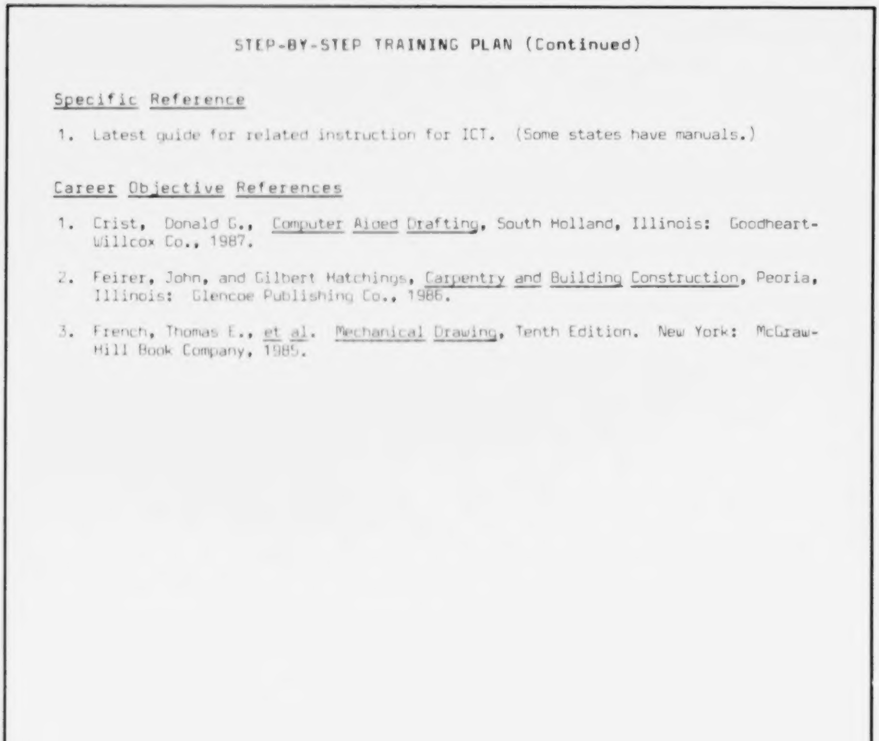
Planned Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
6. Learning sectional and auxiliary views (cont.)		
c. Represents broken section views.		x
d. Constructs detailed or removed section views.		x
e. Illustrates phantom section views.		x
f. Constructs auxiliary views.	x	x
7. Learning to make working drawings		
a. Learns types and uses of working drawings.		x
b. Makes detailed drawings.	x	
c. Makes assembly drawings.	x	x
d. Makes layout drawings.	x	x
e. Prepares bill of materials list.	x	x
8. Learning to draw screw threads, gears, welding symbols		
a. Draws screw threads.	x	x
b. Executes welding drawings.	x	x
c. Makes welding drawings symbols.	x	x
d. Represents and specifies gears.	x	x
9. Learning to make pictorial drawings		
a. Develops isometric projection drawing.		x
b. Sketches pictorial drawings.		x
c. Illustrates drawings.	x	x
d. Shades drawings.	x	x
e. Learns special shading methods.	x	
10. Learning to make piping drawings and schematics		
a. Develops pipe threads.	x	x
b. Specifies pipe and fittings.	x	x
c. Makes pipe drawings.	x	x
d. Dimensions pipe drawings.		x
e. Makes pipe schematic drawings.	x	x
f. Makes electrical schematic drawings.		x
11. Learning development drawing		
a. Lays out development drawings.	x	x
b. Classifies lines and surfaces.	x	x
c. Makes intersection drawings.	x	x
d. Practices development drawing.	x	

FIG. 22-5 (Continued)

STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Planned Learning Outcomes	Training in Class	Experience on the Job
12. Learning revolution and rotation		
a. Makes revolution drawings.	x	x
b. Practices development drawing.	x	
13. Learning architectural drawing		
a. Learns architectural terms.	x	
b. Learns types of house architecture.	x	
c. Makes preliminary studies.	x	x
d. Prepares plot plans.	x	x
e. Makes presentation drawings.	x	x
f. Uses architectural symbols and conventions.	x	x
g. Prepares floor plans.	x	x
h. Dimensions architectural drawings.	x	x
i. Letters architectural drawings.	x	x
j. Makes wall sections.	x	x
k. Lays out elevations.	x	x
l. Makes detail drawings.	x	x
m. Makes perspective drawings.	x	x
n. Draws specifications.		x
14. Learning structural drafting		
a. Learns structural terms.	x	
b. Specifies structural steel.	x	x
c. Dimensions structural drawings.	x	x
d. Makes structural working drawings.		x
e. Makes structural detail drawings.	x	x
f. Learns structural notations and detailing information.	x	
g. Makes timber-structure drawings.	x	x
h. Makes masonry-structure drawings.	x	x
15. Learning topographic map drawings		
a. Develops topographic drawings.	x	x
b. Uses topographic symbols.		x
c. Lays out plats.	x	x
d. Learns classification of maps and topographic drawings.		x
16. Learning reproduction of drawings		
a. Operates and maintains reproduction equipment.		x
b. Makes Ozalid prints.	x	x
c. Makes blueprints.		x

FIG. 22-5 (Continued)



STEP-BY-STEP TRAINING PLAN (Continued)

Specific Reference

1. Latest guide for related instruction for ICT. (Some states have manuals.)

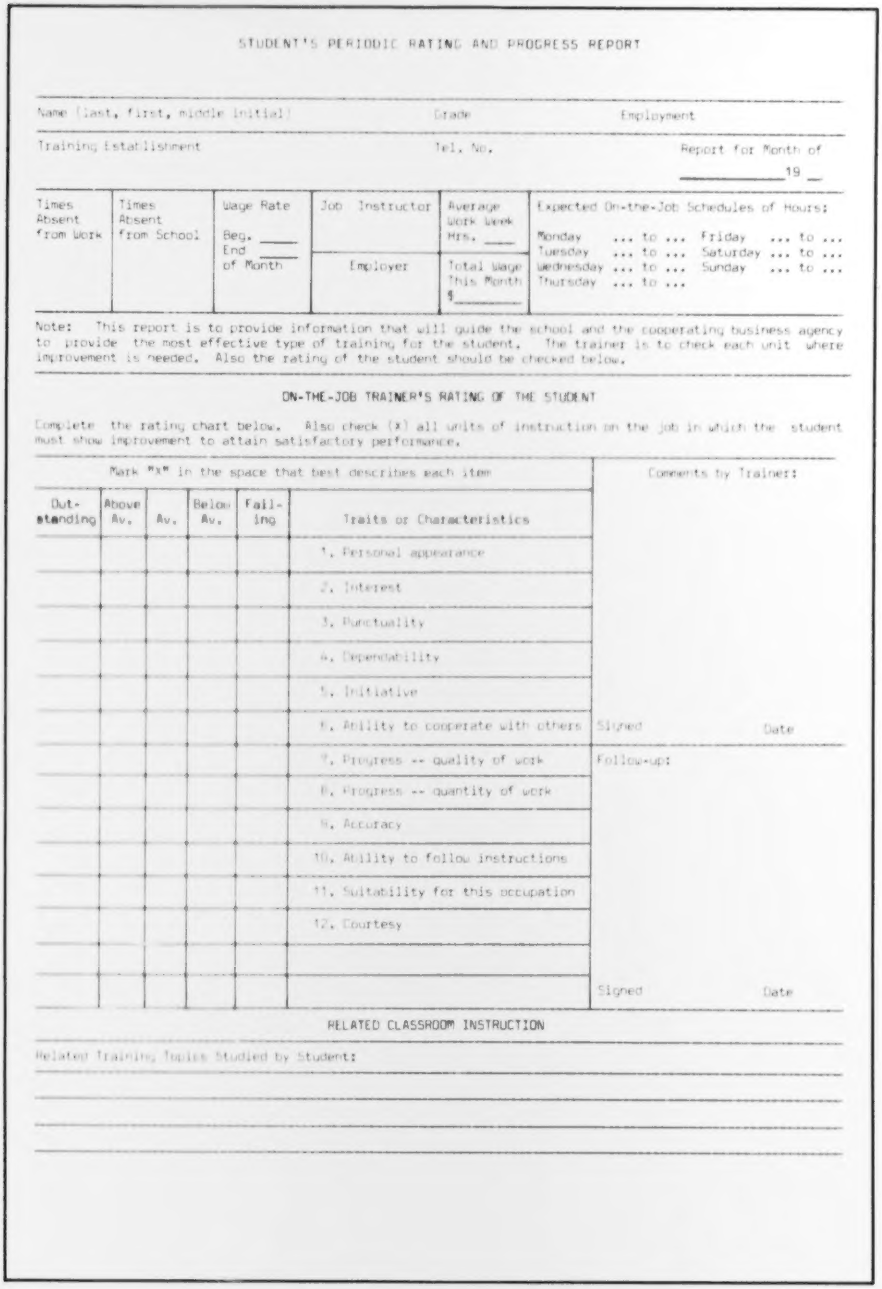
Career Objective References

1. Crist, Donald G., *Computer Aided Drafting*, South Holland, Illinois: Goodheart-Willcox Co., 1987.

2. Feirer, John, and Gilbert Hatchings, *Carpentry and Building Construction*, Peoria, Illinois: Glencoe Publishing Co., 1986.

3. French, Thomas E., *et al*. *Mechanical Drawing*, Tenth Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1985.

FIG. 22-5 (Continued)



STUDENT'S PERIODIC RATING AND PROGRESS REPORT

Name (last, first, middle initial)	Grade	Employment
Training Establishment	Tel. No.	Report for Month of __________19 __

Times Absent from Work	Times Absent from School	Wage Rate Beg. ____ End ____ of Month	Job Instructor	Average Work Week Hrs. ____	Expected On-the-Job Schedules of Hours: Monday ... to ... Friday ... to ... Tuesday ... to ... Saturday ... to ... Wednesday ... to ... Sunday ... to ... Thursday ... to ...
			Employer	Total Wage This Month $______	

Note: This report is to provide information that will guide the school and the cooperating business agency to provide the most effective type of training for the student. The trainer is to check each unit where improvement is needed. Also the rating of the student should be checked below.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINER'S RATING OF THE STUDENT

Complete the rating chart below. Also check (X) all units of instruction on the job in which the student must show improvement to attain satisfactory performance.

Mark "x" in the space that best describes each item						Comments by Trainer:
Out-standing	Above Av.	Av.	Below Av.	Fail-ing	Traits or Characteristics	
					1. Personal appearance	
					2. Interest	
					3. Punctuality	
					4. Dependability	
					5. Initiative	
					6. Ability to cooperate with others	Signed Date
					7. Progress -- quality of work	Follow-up:
					8. Progress -- quantity of work	
					9. Accuracy	
					10. Ability to follow instructions	
					11. Suitability for this occupation	
					12. Courtesy	
						Signed Date

RELATED CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

Related Training Topics Studied by Student:

FIG. 22-6. (Courtesy, Dade County Public Schools, Dade County, Florida)

3. The student-learners have attained an appreciation of the concept of work to the extent that they have the potential to succeed in their chosen trades or in a related family of occupations.
4. The student-learners can communicate effectively with their supervisors and co-workers.
5. The employer-employee appreciation event, or any other public display or function that is student-centered but coordinator-advised, reflects the skills acquired and the technical knowledge gained by the student-learners during the cooperative educational experience.
6. The student-learners can produce the quality of work desired in the quantity that meets the standards of the trade.

TRAINING STATION PERFORMANCE BY STUDENTS

The most valid evaluation forms for on-the-job performance are those developed by the teacher-coordinator for individual student-learners, covering the experiences and learning outcomes applicable for a particular grading period. However, a general type of rating sheet and progress report (see Figure 22-6) can be adapted, then completed by the on-the-job supervisor at the end of each grading period. This completed form, preferably filled out by the teacher-coordinator face-to-face with the supervisor and perhaps in the presence of the student-learner, can be the basis for discussion with the student-learner and the job supervisor. Any letter grade given as the result of the rating and the discussion should be determined by the teacher-coordinator.

Questions and Activities

1. Prepare a 20-minute talk that you could give before a civic club, trade group, or union explaining the cooperative industrial education plan. Prepare charts or other visual aids to supplement your talk. (Add the notes of this talk to your files.)
2. What are the minimum qualifications for becoming certified as a cooperative industrial education teacher-coordinator in a reimbursable program in your state?
3. How adequate is the list of topics for related instruction suggested in this chapter? If you were the teacher-coordinator, which areas would you emphasize the most? Why? Use a specific-type program as a case for your analysis.
4. How does the instruction in a cooperative industrial education plan differ from that of another occupational field? Illustrate how differences occur because of factors such as degree of on-the-job skills development, prior skill readiness, and demand for cognitive learnings in these occupations.
5. If you were preparing a long-range (three- to five-year) plan for purchasing equipment and supplies for a cooperative industrial training classroom, what essentials would you request the first year? What would be some desirable items you would put in your plan for purchase later on? (Add the notes of these ideas to your files.)

6. Analyze the learning outcomes that could be expected in a specific prospective training station in your local community. Determine the possibility of a student-learner's progress toward his/her career objective in this training station by the end of the school year. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to proceed.)
7. Discuss the merits of the step-by-step training plan (or schedule of processes) in organizing a training station and the merits of the profile approach to evaluating a training station experience.
8. How do cooperative industrial education student organization activities provide educational experiences for student-learners? How do they differ from other occupational areas?
9. From examples you have studied, prepare a form that you could use in a local cooperative industrial training plan for each of the following: a rating sheet on the student-learner at the training station and a weekly report form on which the student-learner could report his/her training station activities. (Add a copy of each of these to your files.)
10. Using census data or state employment service sources, make a series of charts showing industrial employment trends in one county or standard metropolitan area of your state.
11. Study current references on classroom equipment and floor plans. Draw a room layout to scale (¼ inch equals 1 foot) and prepare an equipment list.
12. What are the differences between a single-trade plan and a diversified-trades plan? Suggest how these differences affect student selection, training station placement, related instruction, prerequisite courses, and coordination activities.
13. State the learning outcomes of a training plan in behavioral terms. (Refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions.)

For references pertinent to the subject matter of this chapter, see the Bibliography.

Glossary

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Academic sanction—A penalty involving school grades, credit, or graduation.

Administrative laws—Legislative enactments, such as congressional acts, state statutes, and city ordinances.

Adult education—The process of educating and training adults, conducted by school corporations, community Private Industry Councils, and post-secondary institutions.

Advisory committee—A group serving strictly in an advisory capacity, with the educational policy remaining under the control of the superintendent of schools. It usually consists of 7 to 12 persons—teachers, businesspersons, labor leaders, parents, and students. If a steering committee is used, some members may be asked to serve on it.

AIASA—American Industrial Arts Student Association, which is a national vocational organization of elementary, junior high, and senior high students who are currently enrolled in or have previously completed industrial arts courses.

Alternating cooperative—A series of full-time experiences in industry that alternate with a period of full-time study.

Alumni—Former graduates of cooperative occupational education plans.

American Vocational Association—An organization composed of vocational educators. Members receive *UPDATE*, the vocational education journal, plus a monthly newsletter; other services include insurance, registration with its placement office, annual conventions, and professional relationship services with other associations and with the government. All vocational educators are eligible to join.

Annual contract—A legal agreement for reimbursement for vocational education, which is filed by the district administrator at the beginning of the school year.

Annual report—An account of actual expenditures of funds, in which the local superintendent requests reimbursement at the end of the fiscal year, based on the annual contract.

Area Redevelopment Act of 1962—An emergency measure born out of a recession, which authorized $4.5 million annually to be used for vocational education until 1965. It particularly recognized the critical need for training that arises from unemployment and underemployment in economically distressed areas.

Area vocational school/center—A high school, a department of a high school, a technical institute or vocational school, a department or a division of a junior–community college or a university used exclusively or principally to provide vocational education to students who are entering the labor market.

Assured jobs program—A program that provides work on a voluntary basis for those who can meet an income test—such as that required for JTPA assistance—and who have received unemployment compensation for more than 15 weeks.

At-risk populations—Certain segments of society, all who have disabilities and/or disadvantages, such as minority groups, women, persons who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged, and those who are physically and/or mentally handicapped.

Bilingual education—Formal learning and training for individuals with limited English proficiency to prepare them for occupational entry and to provide them with instruction in the English language so that they will be equipped to pursue such occupations in an English language environment.

BPA—Business Professionals of America, which is the vocational organization for those secondary and post-secondary students enrolled in vocational business education programs.

Calendar of events—An outline of activities that serves as a guide for school officials who have the responsibility for getting the cooperative plan underway. Also, it may be a guide for the teacher-coordinator after the initiation of the cooperative plan.

Career development competency—A type of occupational competency in which an individual realizes the need for experience and further study in order to accomplish an identified career goal.

Career Education Act of 1978—Federal legislation that established the comprehensive career development concept, which viewed the individual as progressing through various planned experiences, a series of dimensions that total a complete cycle. These dimensions begin with career awareness at an early age, add employability skills, and end with educational awareness.

Career objective—A vocational goal toward which a cooperative student prepares and through which the student expects to obtain full-time employment, with opportunities for monetary compensation and for advancement.

Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984—Federal legislation that amended the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and replaced the amendments of 1968 and 1976. It changed the emphasis of federal funding in vocational education from primarily expansion to program improvement and at-risk populations.

Changing occupation—An existing occupation that has experienced a change in duties, skills, or tasks, significant enough to require training beyond a short demonstration, but not significant enough to reclassify it into another existing occupation or to create a new occupation.

Chapter work/activities—A series of well-balanced, varied student organization experiences.

Cluster concept—The development of instructional programs designed to provide skills, knowledges, and understandings common to several related occupations.

Combination plans—Cooperative plans that involve more than one broad occupational grouping.

Community survey—A detailed study designed to secure information from the student body and the business community, thus aiding in the decision-making as to whether a cooperative plan should be initiated.

Competency—A skill, an attitude, and/or a knowledge needed by an individual to master an occupation.

Competency-based curriculum—A curriculum built around the skills, aptitudes and/or knowledge needed by an individual to master an occupation.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973—Federal legislation intended to continue the goals of the previous MDTA legislation, plus expand the previous services MDTA made available. It recognized the high unemployment level at that time, the increasing number of welfare recipients, the increasing number of economically disadvantaged rural and urban communities with hard core unemployed, the significantly large number of youth unable to find part-time or full-time employment, and the increasing number of minority group members who were unskilled and unemployed.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Amendments of 1978—Federal legislation that authorized the extension of the activities and the programs of the 1973 law. It also included provisions to improve the delivery, accountability, and coordination of the various employment and training programs and services.

Consulting—Working with businesspersons in a community to help solve business problems.

Continuing education—The process of educating and training adults through short-term activities, such as conferences, clinics, and workshops, to help keep adults up-to-date in their employment skills.

Cooperative Education Association—An organization composed primarily of post-secondary and college or university cooperative education personnel. Members receive a quarterly journal and other services. There is an annual convention.

Cooperative occupational education plans—Organized and supervised work experience plans that correlate school and job learnings in tandem with defined career objectives. They incorporate related classroom instruction, supervised on-the-job training, and a student organization, under the direction of a certified teacher-coordinator.

Cooperative plan of instruction—A strategy/structure/system of instruction that achieves predetermined goals and competencies in a given occupational field, which includes on-the-job training.

Coordination—The relationship of all those activities outside the classroom that are performed by the teacher-coordinator in organizing, administering, operating, and improving the cooperative plan.

Correlated instruction—The direct relationship between the study in school and the training activities on the job, both of which are based upon the student-learner's career objective.

Correlation—The relationship between professionally trained individuals in the school laboratory and occupationally proficient individuals in the work laboratory who share the teaching–learning responsibility.

Counselor-coordinator—An educator who handles a work exploration program.

Debriefing meetings—After the students have completed their cooperative experiences, get-togethers in which the students and their coordinators discuss the students' reactions to and impressions of their experiences and review their employers' evaluations.

DECA—Distributive Education Clubs of America, which is the national vocational organization for secondary and post-secondary students who are enrolled in marketing education programs.

DECA chapter—A local student organization consisting of marketing education students.

Demographic trends—Trends that deal with characteristics of human populations that are concerned with size and density, distribution, and vital statistics, such as age, sex, income.

Directed occupational experience—Training and/or activities that include two complementary components: an actual occupational activity and a seminar designed to supplement that experience.

Disadvantaged—Referring to individuals who are economically and/or academically disadvantaged to the extent that they cannot actively participate in vocational programs.

Due process—The course of legal proceedings established to protect each individual's rights and liberties. *Substantive* due process refers to the legislation (rule) itself: Is the rule's purpose within the power of the lawmaker to pursue and is it rationally related to accomplishing its purpose? *Procedural* due process refers to the implementation of the rule: Has the rule been implemented fairly?

Education for All Handicapped Children Act—Federal legislation that applies to students, ages 3 to 21, who are handicapped and in public elementary and secondary schools and to those who have been placed in private schools by public agencies.

Employer-employee appreciation event—A meal, a program, or an activity, which is an expression of appreciation by the student-workers to their employers.

Equal educational opportunity—Concept interpreted by most courts to mean that school districts must take affirmative action to overcome the deficiencies of certain groups of students.

Experiential learning—The acquisition of a wide range of learning experiences. From involvement in such learning experiences, the teacher-coordinator may learn about potential training stations, may acquire additional knowledge about occupational fields, and may gain expanded local support.

Exploratory work experience plans—Plans that are designed to help young people learn firsthand about an occupation by either observing it or engaging in productive work.

Extended contract—A legal agreement for teacher-coordinators that continues beyond the regular school year, sometimes covering the entire summer.

Farm-out system—An arrangement whereby related instruction is assigned to a teacher in an occupational course not taught by the teacher-coordinator.

FBLA—Future Business Leaders of America, which is a national vocational organization for students enrolled in secondary business courses. Students do not have to be in a vocational program to belong.

Feedback—Information gathered through contact with the job supervisor to the student-learner relative to training or events on the job.

FFA—Future Farmers of America, which is the national vocational organization of secondary students in vocational agriculture programs.

FHA—Future Homemakers of America, Inc., which is the national vocational organization for junior and senior high school students enrolled in home economics occupations education. The organization's goal is to help youth assume active roles in society as wage earners, community leaders, and family members.

General employability competence—The possession of the fundamental personal traits necessary for employment. These include reliability, well-groomed personal appearance, pleasant personality, cooperation, and positive attitude toward work.

General work experience plans—Plans that are primarily intended to help students explore occupations and to give them experience at working. These may be remunerative or non-remunerative.

George-Barden Act of 1946—Federal legislation that authorized an appropriation of $28.5 million annually for the further development of vocational education. It is also known as the Vocational Education Act of 1946. It replaced the George-Deen Act of 1936.

George-Deen Act of 1936—Federal legislation that authorized an annual allotment of $12 million for agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial education. Marketing occupations were recognized for the first time, and $1.2 million was authorized for them annually.

Handicapped—Referring to those students, ages 3 to 21, who are handicapped mentally, educationally, and/or physically. They may be in public elementary and secondary schools or they may have been placed in private schools by public agencies.

Higher education institutions—Two-year post-secondary institutions and four-year colleges and universities.

HOSA—Health Occupations Students of America, which is the national vocational organization for secondary and post-secondary students who are enrolled in health occupations education.

"in loco parentis"—Educational concept in which the courts view teachers as standing in place of the parents of the students under their supervision and as such they have not only the right but also the duty to act on the behalf of their students.

Internship—A period of occupational experience by a person who has completed all the academic requirements for admission to a profession prior to certification (licensing) as a recognized practitioner. It is also called a practicum.

Job adjustment competency—Type of occupational competency whereby an employee must successfully develop the interpersonal relationships needed in any new employment situation.

Job development—The process of creating jobs (training opportunities, part-time employment, or full-time employment) that did not exist or whose existence was not known to the school.

Job intelligence competency—Type of occupational competency that involves an individual's acquiring the skills, knowledges, and attitudes necessary to perform the duties needed in a given occupation.

Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) of 1982—Federal legislation that replaced CETA and enlarged the role of state governments and private industry in federal job training programs, imposed performance standards, limited support services, and created a new program of retraining for displaced workers.

Learning agreement—A written contract between the student and the coordinator or faculty advisor detailing the goals or the objectives that the student proposed to accomplish while on the cooperative assignment.

Learning manager—The cooperative teacher whose effectiveness in the cooperative classroom depends upon that teacher's depth of understanding of the learning process and knowledge of how vocational learning is implemented by proper procedures and techniques in the classroom and on the job.

Levels of employment—The five steps of marketing employment—entry-level, career-sustaining, marketing specialist, marketing supervisor, and manager-entrepreneur—to which instruction in prebaccalaureate marketing education is directed.

Mainstreaming—The placing of students who are handicapped in the "least restrictive environment" and then developing an individualized education program (IEP) for every student who has a handicap.

Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962—Federal legislation that authorized funds for training and retraining of unemployed and underemployed adults.

Marketing education—The process of understanding and using various combinations of subject matter and learning experiences related to the performance of activities that direct the flow of goods and services, including their appropriate utilization, from the producer to the consumer or user.

Marketing Education Resource Center (formerly IDECC)—A national center of resource materials and research activities located at The Ohio State University, which provides competency-based training materials, seminars, and promotional aids.

Method of instruction—A procedure used by the instructor in the classroom, such as lecture, case problem, or project.

Monthly enrollment report—A monthly account of enrollment information, which aids the state staff in determining the amount of training being accomplished.

Morrill Act of 1862—Federal legislation that appropriated public lands for the establishment of a college of vocational education in each state. It is also known as the Land-Grant College Act.

National Defense Education Act of 1946—Federal legislation that authorized an appropriation of $15 million annually for four years to support programs limited to the training of highly skilled technicians in occupations recognized as necessary for the national defense. The provisions became Title III of the George-Barden Act of 1946.

Needs analysis—The evaluation of training needed by an individual or an organization.

Net increase in labor force—Growth in the labor force over a specific period of time.

New occupation—An occupation that has come into existence in a particular geographic area in the last 10 years, has employment levels large enough to be measured, and requires tasks, skills, and duties not included in any currently existing occupation.

News release—A news article structured around answering the five main "w" questions—Who? What? When? Where? Why?

Non-additive credit—Unit of work earned at the workplace rather than on campus.

Occupational competency—Type of competency whereby an individual must have enough specific education and training to be employable, but with a broad enough background to be able to move horizontally as well as vertically in a cluster of related occupations for advancement or promotion.

Open-interviewing—The process of allowing students to interview with more than one organization for employment during their internship programs.

Optional scheduling technique—The method of preparing and following an elective schedule of classes; the cooperative plan related courses are omitted in favor of other courses.

Orientation experiences—Those activities designed to give students the opportunity to sample different professions.

Parallel cooperative—Periods of experience, often full time for a term/semester, or half-time in some schools located in metropolitan areas where school and work can be conveniently combined. Usually occurs in the latter half of the curriculum when the student has completed the basic or core courses in his/her major field.

Plan of instruction—A strategy that uses appropriate teaching methods, such as the lecture and the field trip, for the learning outcomes sought.

Preparatory courses—Those studies in a plan of instruction that develop a student's occupational awareness and those skills, concepts, and attitudes needed before that student can be placed as a cooperative student-learner.

Private Industry Council (PIC)—Group in each SDA that is responsible for establishing goals for accomplishing performance standards, including elements such as placement data of clients in unsubsidized employment, job retention figures, and reductions in welfare payments. The majority of the members are private sector representatives. Other members are from educational institutions, organized labor, and economic development agencies.

Program of instruction—A series of courses and/or experiences having educational objectives.

Project laboratory (plan)—An outline of marketing activities taught through simulations provided in a school laboratory setting.

Public relations (PR)—Those activities, such as developing brochures, assisting in school activities, making speeches, publicizing the cooperative plan, and appearing on radio and television programs, designed to create favorable public opinion.

Recurring activities—Those coordination activities repeated during the school year in order to have an effective cooperative occupational education plan.

Reimbursement rate—The percentage of the cooperative plan budget that is returned to the local school system from state and federal funds.

Related class—In-school instruction that is relevant to those activities learned and performed by students on the job.

School store—A facility located in the school building or in a shopping center that is operated by marketing education students under the supervision of their teacher-coordinator. This facility provides marketing activities that are ordinarily carried out in marketing businesses.

Sectional cooperative plan—A design whereby directly related instruction is given separately to students in both occupational areas, but in which one teacher instructs both classes and coordinates both groups.

Seminars—Education or training sessions of one or two meetings, totaling two to five hours.

Sex equity—The elimination of sex bias and sex stereotyping.

Smith-Hughes Act of 1917—Federal legislation that provided an annual grant of approximately $7.2 million in perpetuity to the states for the promotion of vocational education in agricultural, trade and industrial, and home economics education.

Special delivery areas (SDA's)—Units of local government set up by each state governor. Each unit is based on a population of 200,000 or more, a consortium of contiguous local governments with an aggregate population of 200,000 or more that serves a substantial part of the labor market area, or a rural concentrated employment program that served as a prime sponsor under CETA.

Special needs populations—Individuals who are (1) physically and/or mentally disabled, economically and/or academically disadvantaged, and/or limited–English-speaking; (2) members of minority groups; and/or (3) gifted and talented.

Specialized plans—Cooperative plans in the various fields of cooperative education—agriculture, business, health, home economics, marketing, and trade and industry.

Specific employability competence—The possession of definite job skills, attitudes, and/or knowledges necessary for employment.

Sponsor development—The process of enhancing the training abilities of job supervisors or job sponsors through meetings and learning activities.

State councils—Advisory groups, each of which advises its state's board of vocational education on policies that would strengthen that state's vocational education program. Their policy objectives are (1) to achieve considerable public involvement in shaping vocational education policy, to provide independent assessments of vocational programs and activities, and to establish mechanisms that will improve vocational education policies and the policy-making process.

State plan—A written plan submitted to the U.S. Secretary of Education for a two-year period that shows how that state proposes to use funds provided through a particular vocational education act.

Steering committee—Usually a temporary advisory group that decides whether a cooperative education plan should be started in its school system. It is usually composed of representatives from education, business, labor, the news media, parents, and the community at large.

Student-learner—A person who has enrolled in the cooperative plan to prepare for an occupation or an area of occupations. This person is a *student* in the secondary or post-secondary school and a *learner* in an occupation in the supervised business laboratory experiences.

Tax credit—Legislation that provides employers who participate in cooperative plans with eligibility for being reimbursed for excess costs involved in supplying training stations for student-learners.

Teacher-coordinator—A teacher, counselor, administrator, and public relations person.

Training agreement—A written document clarifying the specific responsibilities of the student-learner, the training sponsor, the parents, the teacher-coordinator, and the school.

Training plan—A step-by-step procedure listing what the student-learner is to study in school and on the job. It brings the student face to face with determining what career objective to pursue and with deciding what competencies to develop. Through the training plan, the employer becomes more definitely aware of the student-learner's occupational goal and will usually try to lead that student toward achieving that objective by providing adequate work activities and on-the-job instruction.

Training station—A cooperating business, industry, or government agency, which has been selected according to criteria that measure its ability to provide opportunities for supervised educational experiences that will prepare the student for his/her intended career objective.

Training station sponsor—An experienced employee, supervisor, or manager who is directly responsible for the occupational learning experiences of the student-learner on the job, as indicated by the step-by-step training plan.

VICA—Vocational Industrial Clubs of America, which is a non-profit national vocational organization for secondary and post-secondary students enrolled in trade and industrial occupations programs.

Vocational education—The process of educating and training individuals for occupational competency.

Vocational Education Act of 1963—Federal legislation that for the first time mandated that vocational education meet the needs of individual students, not just the employment needs of industry. Its major purposes were to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs of vocational education and to provide part-time employment for young people who needed the earnings from such employment to continue their schooling on a full-time basis.

Vocational Education Act of 1976—Federal legislation that mandated vocational education to reflect the needs of the labor market more accurately and, in some cases, to become a partner with business, industry, and labor in attempting to change the workplace to be more responsive to the needs of its workers: to become pro-active rather than re-active.

Vocational Education Amendments of 1968—Federal legislation that authorized federal grants to states to assist them in maintaining, extending, and improving existing programs of vocational education and to provide part-time employment for young people who needed the earnings from such employment to continue their vocational training. Research, experimental demonstration programs, and exemplary programs and projects were encouraged.

Vocational Rehabilitation Act—Federal legislation that was designed to protect persons who are disabled and who are attending preschool, elementary, secondary, or adult education programs, as well as those individuals with handicaps who are in post-secondary education programs.

Vocational student organization—Cooperative education co-curricular student group, whose activities must be directly related to instructional goals. In competitive events/activities, students must demonstrate either occupational knowledge or general knowledge related to specific careers.

Weekly training report—A statement prepared by trainees or student-learners that indicates the areas in which they are gaining on-the-job instruction.

Work exploration program—A series of experiences that provide students with temporary exposure to the world of work, as they are placed in exploratory situations to observe and assist in occupational areas in which they have indicated an interest or have shown an aptitude.

Work observation plans—Non-remunerative, short-term work experiences that are intended to give students a feel for the work environment and a superficial understanding of the activities performed by various employees at their work stations.

Work-study plans—Work experience plans that are associated with secondary or post-secondary institutions, without correlation of school and job learnings in tandem with defined career objectives.

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To help users utilize the references for class study assignments or for independent study, the references are classified by chapter titles, which are listed according to their sequence in the text.

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